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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

AT THE

TWENTY-FIFTH ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN THE CITY
OF NEW YORK, MAY 18–25, 1898

EDITED BY

ISABEL C. BARROWS

BOSTON, MASS.: GEO. H. ELLIS, 272 CONGRESS STREET
LONDON: P. S. KING & SON, 5 KING STREET, WESTMINSTER, S.W.
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PREFACE.

The twenty-fifth session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in New York City, May 18–25, 1898. The Introduction, which has been carefully edited by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, contains a full account of the special exercises in commemoration of the quarter-century anniversary, as well as a résumé of the progress that has been made in the last twenty-five years in matters of charity and correction.

By special request reproductions are inserted in the Introduction of two groups of officers of the Conference which were taken in New York during the last meeting.

The next session will be held in Cincinnati, Ohio, May 17–23, 1899. President, Professor Charles R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago.

Boston, December, 1898.

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RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

PREAMBLE.

The National Conference of Charities exists to discuss the problems of charities and correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms. It does not formulate platforms.

I. MEMBERSHIP.

All persons who are interested in charities and correction may become members by registering their names and paying the annual fee.

Honorary members may be elected on recommendation of the Executive Committee.

The annual membership fee shall be $2.50, which shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

State Boards of Charities and other societies and institutions subscribing for the Proceedings in quantities shall be entitled to enroll their officers and members as members of this Conference at the rate of one member for each $2.50 paid.

II. OFFICERS.

The officers of the Conference shall be a President, three Vice-Presidents, a General Secretary, six Secretaries, a Treasurer, and an Official Reporter and Editor, also a Corresponding Secretary for each State and Territory. These officers shall be elected annually by the Conference.

III. COMMITTEES.

The standing committees shall be an Executive Committee and a committee on each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference,

The Executive Committee shall consist of the President, and all ex-Presidents *ex officio*, and seven members to be elected annually by the Conference.

The President, soon after the opening of the Conference, shall appoint a committee of seven on organization of the next Conference; also a committee of three on resolutions, to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate.

At each annual session of the Conference, on the first day after the organization, the members present from each State or Territory shall meet and appoint one of their number to represent them on a committee to be known as the Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting. The Committee on Time and Place shall meet on the afternoon or evening of the same day, for the purpose of receiving invitations from States, cities, or towns, and shall prepare a report which shall be presented to the Conference on the following morning. The vote on the report of the committee shall be taken by ballot, and every member of the Conference shall have the right to cast his ballot for the place of his choice, provided that no invitation shall be accepted which does not receive a majority of all the ballots cast; and provided, further, that the place of

meeting selected may be changed by the Executive Committee, if satisfactory local arrangements cannot be made.

IV. Duties of Officers.

The President shall be chairman, *ex officio*, of the Executive Committee, and shall have the supervision of the work of the several committees in preparing for the meeting of the Conference. He shall have authority to accept resignations and to fill vacancies in the list of officers and chairmen of committees, and to fill vacancies in, and add to the numbers of, any committee except the Executive Committee.

The General Secretary shall be *ex officio* Secretary of the Executive Committee, and Chairman of the Committee on Reports from the States. He shall conduct the correspondence of the Conference with officers, committees, and others, under the direction of the President. He shall have charge of the distribution of all announcements and programmes, and shall direct the work of the Secretaries, and be responsible for the correctness of the roll of members. He shall be the custodian of the unsold copies of the reports of the Proceedings, receive all orders for the same, and direct their distribution.

He shall receive all membership fees and proceeds of sales of the reports of the Proceedings, and pay the same promptly to the Treasurer. He shall receive compensation for his services and an allowance for clerk hire and other expenses, the amount and time of payment of which shall be fixed by the Executive Committee from time to time.

The Treasurer shall receive and disburse all moneys of the Conference, all disbursements to be made only upon order of the General Secretary, approved by the President or by some member of the Executive Committee, to be named by the President.

The Official Reporter and Editor shall report and edit the Proceedings of the Conference. The President of the retiring Conference and the Official Editor shall constitute a Publication Committee, and the work of editing shall be under the direction of the committee.

The Corresponding Secretaries shall be responsible for the annual reports from their several States. It shall be their duty to secure the attendance of representatives from public and private institutions and societies.

V. The Duties of Committees.

The Executive Committee shall be the President's Advisory Board, and shall hold the powers of the Conference in the interim between the meetings. The Executive Committee may appoint sub-committees to attend to matters of detail.

Meetings of the Executive Committee shall be called by the President of the Conference, and five members shall constitute a quorum, provided that, when the Conference is not in session, three members shall constitute a quorum.

The Local Committee shall make all necessary local arrangements for the meeting, and provide funds for the local expenses, such as hall rent, salary and expenses of the Reporter, and all necessary printing except the Proceedings, in such amount as the Executive Committee may determine.

The President, in consultation with the Chairman of each Standing Committee, shall arrange the programme for the sessions and section meetings, and shall so arrange it as to give opportunity for free discussion; provided that the programme, before final adoption, shall be submitted to the Executive Committee for its approval.

No paper shall be presented to the Conference except through the proper committee, and no paper shall be read in the absence of the writer, except by unanimous consent.

VI. Section Meetings.

The Section Meetings are designed for familiar discussion. Not more than one paper shall be read at any Section Meeting, and that paper shall be limited to fifteen minutes. If possible, papers shall be printed and distributed beforehand, that the entire meeting may be given to discussion. No afternoon meetings shall be inserted in the official programme.

VII. Debates.

In the debates of the Conference, speakers shall be limited to five minutes each, except by unanimous consent, and shall not be allowed to speak twice on any one subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

VIII. Amendments.

These rules shall remain in force from year to year, unless amended; and all additions or amendments shall be submitted to the Executive Committee before being acted on by the Conference.

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Introduction.

THE TWENTY-FIFTH CONFERENCE.

Although only twenty-four years had passed since the National Conference of Charities and Correction first met in New York,— a fact overlooked by some of the speakers and writers at the Twenty-fifth Conference,— yet the lapse of time necessary to bring out the annual volume of our Proceedings has made the full quarter-century intervene between the incipience of the First Conference (of 1874) and this brief record of the history of the organization.

On the 8th of October, 1873, Mr. F. B. Sanborn, one of the two original secretaries of the American Social Science Association, was elected General Secretary of that body; and on the 16th of March, 1874, he was re-elected Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of State Charities, of which he had been the original Secretary from October, 1863, to October, 1868. In the interval between these dates (Oct. 8, 1873, and March 16, 1874) Mr. Sanborn co-operated with the late Professor W. B. Rogers, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and others in organizing a Department of Social Economy in the Social Science Association, upon the Committee of which he was associated with several eminent gentlemen since deceased,— Dr. S. G. Howe, Messrs. Charles Loring Brace, George S. Hale, and John Ayres,— with Mrs. S. Parkman, now dead, and with Mrs. Henry Whitman and Miss Lucy Ellis, of Boston, and Dr. Robert T. Davis, of Fall River, who still survive, and are active in the discussion of social questions. It was decided by this Social Economy Department Committee that a Conference of the Boards of Public Charities in the United States ought to be called together; and measures were taken in the winter of 1873–74 to learn the wishes of the nine State Boards of Charities then existing in the States of Connecticut, Illinois, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin. Mr. San-

born, being a member of the Massachusetts Board for nearly ten years before his re-election as its Secretary, was well aware of the wish of that Board (the oldest in the country) for such a Conference; and the Boards of Wisconsin, Illinois, and Michigan, had shown their desire in the matter by holding a sectional Conference at Chicago some years earlier. There was therefore little difficulty in obtaining a general assent to the summoning of a National Conference in connection with the General Meeting of the American Social Science Association, May 20, 1874, in the rooms of the Young Men's Christian Association, 23d Street, New York. The actual invitation proceeded from the Department Committee of the Social Science Association, but was indorsed by the senior State Board (of Massachusetts) by special vote of April 1, 1874; and Mr. Sanborn was authorized to represent Massachusetts as delegate. A former member of the same State Board, Dr. R. T. Davis, also took part in the meeting as a member of the Department Committee, and read its report on "Pauperism in the City of New York and Elsewhere," which had been prepared by Mr. Brace and Mr. Sanborn, but was signed by the whole Committee.

Four of the nine State Boards existing in 1874 were represented by delegates at the Conference of May 20, 1874,— Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, and Wisconsin; and four other Boards signified their assent by letter, Illinois being the only State which did not actively respond to the invitation. This seems to have been merely accidental; for Dr. F. H. Wines, then, as now, Secretary of the Illinois Board, was from the first a warm supporter of the Conference, and had taken part in 1871 at the Chicago Conference. Of the New York delegates present, Hon. William P. Letchworth and Dr. Charles S. Hoyt met with us again last May, their colleagues, Hon. J. V. L. Pruyn and Dr. Nathan Bishop, having died. Of the Wisconsin delegates, only one among three is living,— Mr. Andrew E. Elmore,— but in too infirm health to meet with us this year. His colleagues, Mrs. W. P. Lynde and Mr. H. H. Giles, have died. The two Massachusetts representatives survive, and one, Mr. Sanborn, was present; but, of their colleagues on the State Board, only one is now living. So great are the changes which the lapse of a quarter of a century naturally brings about.

Still greater and less to be regretted are the changes in the aspect of the Conference itself in the four-and-twenty years since we first

met in the great city. Then we attracted small notice. Less than a hundred persons probably attended our sessions as participants or listeners. Our printed Proceedings made less than fifty pages, though we swelled them by adding reports of committees and Acts of legislatures which were not read at the meetings. What a contrast to the Conference of 1898! An audience filling the magnificent Carnegie Hall welcomed the delegates from thirty or forty States and Territories, and listened to the addresses of salutation and appreciation made by the official representatives of the city and its abounding and energetic charities, public and private. Our subsequent sessions, extending through a whole week, were at least thirty in number, all well attended, and many of them thronged. The doors of charitable establishments were opened to us by the score, and received our gratified visits. Nothing, in short, was wanting to make this Twenty-fifth Conference the most successful and fruitful of the whole series of our annual gatherings. The exercises of the opening session, preliminary to the address of President Stewart, were as follows: —

PUBLIC CELEBRATION OF THE TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION (FOUNDED IN NEW YORK IN 1874), CARNEGIE HALL, CITY OF NEW YORK, WEDNESDAY EVENING, MAY 18, 1898, 8 O'CLOCK.

Promenade Concert, 7.30 to 8, NEW YORK CATHOLIC PROTECTORY BAND AND ORCHESTRA.

Calling of the Conference to order, President WILLIAM R. STEWART.

Address of Welcome to Delegates, Members, and Visitors, Hon. JOSEPH H. CHOATE, Chairman Committee of One Hundred.

Music, NEW YORK CATHOLIC PROTECTORY BAND AND ORCHESTRA.

Address of Welcome on Behalf of the City, Hon. SETH LOW, ex-Mayor of Brooklyn.

Address, Archbishop CORRIGAN.

Address, Bishop POTTER.

Music, NEW YORK CATHOLIC PROTECTORY BAND AND ORCHESTRA.

Responses on behalf of the Conference: —

For the West, Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON, of Indiana, President of the Twenty-fourth Conference.

For the East, Mr. F. B. SANBORN, of Massachusetts, President of the Eighth Conference.

For the South, JEFFREY R. BRACKETT, Ph.D., of Maryland.

In addition to the speakers, the following gentlemen, members of the Local Committee of One Hundred, were seated on the platform: —

Darius Ogden Mills.
Richard Watson Gilder.
George Maculloch Miller.
Robert W. De Forest.
Stephen Baker.
Frederic Bronson.
John Claflin.
Carl H. de Silver.
Joseph F. Daly.
William Hildreth Field.
James R. Floyd.
Myer S. Isaacs.
Augustus D. Juilliard.
Charlton T. Lewis.
Whitelaw Reid.
James Speyer.
William T. Wardwell.
George G. Wheelock.
Ex-Mayor Schieren.
Lispenard Stewart.
Henry Hentz.
J. Kennedy Tod.
Ex-Governor Levi P. Morton.
William E. Dodge.
Jacob H. Schiff.
Robert C. Cornell.
James A. Roosevelt.
John P. Faure.
Ex-Governor R. P. Flower.
Robert J. Hoguet.
Morris K. Jesup.
D. Willis James.
John S. Kennedy.
Thomas M. Mulry.
W. Watts Sherman.
B. Aymar Sands.
Ex-Mayor Strong.
Isaac N. Seligman.
Everett P. Wheeler.
Alfred T. White.
Mornay Williams.
Andrew C. Zabriskie.

The family and friends of the following persons occupied the boxes: —

Mr. James R. Floyd.
Hon. Levi P. Morton.
Mr. Charles B. Alexander.
Mr. J. Kennedy Tod.
Mr. John S. Kennedy.
Mr. John Claflin.
Mr. Archibald D. Russell.
Mr. Stephen Baker.
Mr. William H. Field.
Mr. Isidor Straus.
Mr. John Newton.
Mr. James Speyer.
Hon. Edward H. Litchfield.
Judge Joseph F. Daly.
Hon. Lispenard Stewart.
Mr. Charles Howland Russell.
Mr. Nathaniel S. Rosenau.
Mr. James O. Fanning.
Mr. Thomas M. Mulry.
Mr. B. Aymar Sands.
Mr. J. M. Helfenstein.
Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler.
Mr. Charlton T. Lewis.
Mr. Myles Tierney.
Mr. Homer Folks.
Mr. Philip W. Ayres.
Hon. Seth Low.
Hon. William R. Stewart.
Hon. Joseph H. Choate.
Hon. Abram S. Hewitt.
Rev. William R. Huntington, D.D.
Mr. Mornay Williams.
Judge Myer S. Isaacs.
Mr. Henry Rice.

Mr. George Macculloch Miller.
Mr. Isaiah Josephy.
Mr. Robert W. De Forest.
Mr. A. D. Juilliard.
Mr. Jacob H. Schiff.
Hon. W. L. Strong.
Miss Rhinelander.
Mr. Howard Townsend.
Mr. J. P. Campbell.
Mr. Robert W. Hebberd.
Mr. Walter S. Ufford.
Mr. John P. Faure.
Mr. T. F. Keating.
Dr. George G. Wheelock.
Mr. Robert J. Hoguet.
Dr. W. H. Tolman.
Mr. Edward T. Devine.
Mrs. Einstein.
American Numismatic and Archæological Society.
State Board of Charities.
Consumers' League.
College Settlement, etc.

President William Rhinelander Stewart, in calling the Conference to order, spoke as follows: —

Ladies and Gentlemen, Members of and Delegates to the Twenty-fifth National Conference of Charities and Correction, — On calling you to order, I avail of the opportunity, the first which has presented itself, to express my profound appreciation of the honor conferred by my election at the twenty-fourth annual assemblage of this body, held last year in Toronto, to preside over your deliberations at this time. Your choice was doubtless determined not so much by personal considerations as in deference to the State and city of New York, in which you then decided that this Conference should meet, and in recognition of the public services of that department of the State government with which I have the honor to be associated.

It is fitting that especial emphasis should be given to this evening's meeting as a public celebration of the Quarter-centennial of the Conference, which had its origin in this city in 1874, and now for the first time since that date returns to us, in numbers and character of membership far exceeding the most hopeful anticipations of its founders. You have set in motion springs of benevolent action, during these four-and-twenty years, in every part of our country; and we hail you, returning, crowned with the approval and thanks of the nation.

To make place for the distinguished representatives of Church and State whose presence dignifies this occasion, and who will in turn address you, I ask leave to depart from precedent, and defer until to-

morrow the delivery of the address which custom may have led you to expect from me at this time.

The duty of State supervision for the dependent and the erring is a subject which has received your earnest consideration in the past, and is one in which your continuing interest is assured. Only five States of the Union have as yet, in some form or other, acknowledged this duty in their fundamental law. That New York can be named with pride among these is largely owing to the wise leadership of the Chairman of the Constitutional Convention of 1894, which adopted an amendment establishing supervisory State Boards of Charities, of Lunacy, and of Prisons. When the record of the public services of this gentleman shall be completed, his successful advocacy of the principle of State supervision will take high rank among them.

Moved by gratitude for these services, for his valued help as Chairman of the Local Committee of One Hundred in perfecting the arrangements for your sessions, and by his pre-eminent qualifications for the position, it is my privilege to relinquish the chairmanship of this meeting to our distinguished fellow-citizen, the Hon. Joseph H. Choate.

Address of Hon. Joseph H. Choate.

Mr. President and Delegates, and Ladies and Gentlemen,— It is justly regarded as a great compliment to the city of New York, of which we all are so proud, that the National Conference of Charities and Correction has decided to hold its jubilee among us. It is twenty-four years since that Conference held its first meeting, almost upon this very spot; and the incalculable good which it has accomplished for the country and for mankind in this quarter of a century justifies us in welcoming its delegates with heart and soul to this happy celebration of their gala-day.

New York, represented by the Committee of One Hundred, whose spokesman I am, welcomes them most warmly. They are gathered here in this great metropolis from all the States of the Union, and from Canada, and from the adjoining republic on our southern border; from Canada, signifying an Anglo-American alliance, of which both countries may well be proud. And, when I welcome the delegates from Mexico, I cannot but think that their presence indicates a sort of Monroe doctrine of charity that secures to us a prevailing interest, at least in all good work that is going on in any part of our continent.

New York City certainly is famous for its charities. This Committee of One Hundred represents that great and varied body of charitable institutions which has been the pride and glory of the city for so many years. There is not an ill that flesh is heir to, there is not a weakness or infirmity known to human nature, for which ample provision for relief is not made with rich profusion by the citizens of New York. But, lavish as is the expenditure for the purposes of charity here, New York does not claim the monopoly of the wise administration of charity, nor presume that its own methods in distributing it or in applying corrections have as yet reached perfection. In these regards New York has a great deal yet to learn; and I know of no source from which it can so well learn it as this great gathering of wise men who have made the study of public charity and correction a science, and have developed new methods, new ideas, and new hopes for the future. It has been well said that the city in which your annual meeting is held is an immense gainer by its labors. There is one lesson, from which, if you could teach it to us, New York would reap an incalculable benefit. I believe that, if we give heed to all the teachings that you bring us, we may learn this lesson: that the time must come when no man, no woman, shall be appointed to the administration of any office in the administration of charities and correction from any political motive, from any partisan purpose, as a reward for any political services, but solely for fitness and skill in the discharge of the duties which the office imposes. If we can only learn that, how speedily it will put a stop to all the waste of money, waste of brains, waste of energy, and waste of hope in the administration of charities which has too commonly prevailed!

Let me, before I sit down, call your attention to two or three great steps in advance that New York has already made under the inspiration of the leadership and instruction of this Conference in its past history. There was a time, not very many years ago, but yet a decade ago, when the insane of New York under public charity were herded into poorhouses and almshouses and prisons and all sorts of unworthy and unfit local habitations, uncared for, neglected, and doomed to hopeless and increasing degradation all the time. But the heroic courage, the tireless perseverance, and the lofty purpose of one woman decided that they must be rescued, and at last accomplished their rescue. Through ten years of struggle against every possible obstacle, against political opposition, and every other opposi-

tion, she fought her way, and at last, only a year ago, the great purpose she had entertained was accomplished, and the entire transfer of the care of the insane of this city to the State itself, to be cared for wisely, intelligently, and amply, was effectually achieved, to remain an accomplished success forever.

Other steps forward have also been accomplished, to which the President of the Conference has already very briefly referred. One is the separation of the officers and Departments of Charity from the Departments of Correction,— the separation of the insane and unfortunate recipients of the public bounty from the criminals and offenders, with whom heretofore they have been herded as one class. In law, in theory, this has already been accomplished : practically, it will require some years more to work out. But it is a great step forward, and it is due to the inspiration that has come from other cities where the experiment has been carried into successful operation that that has been undertaken. And it is directly due to the teachings derived from this Conference.

And then, too, the establishment of the State Board of Charities, over which the President of this Conference so ably and wisely presides, embodied in the Constitution so that no legislation can ever destroy it, intrusted with the general supervision over all the public charities of the State, is an immense advance. No, it is not true that New York has reached perfection yet in this great social science. She needs to learn from those newer communities whom you represent, which, under more favorable conditions and under freer limitations in other and newer States, untrammelled by the habits of older civilization, have been enabled to develop new systems much more worthy of imitation than those that we have followed. I am sure that in one respect particularly, one subject upon which I do pretend to know something in the vast range of charity, and that is in the care of the dependent children of the city,— and I am sorry that nearly one per cent. of the population of the city of New York are dependent children, dependent upon the bounty of the city for support,— this great and powerful city, with its heart always true to charity, has everything to learn.

Now let us see what the sessions of this Conference will develop. We shall learn something, and that is one reason why we so eagerly welcome you. Every year we shall learn a little more, and by and by the combined results of this Conference will show themselves in

the development of a better state of things here and all over the land.

As an illustration of how difficult it is to learn the best methods of administering charity and correction, let me refer to one public incident which has been very strongly impressed upon my mind; and that is the effort that was made in the Constitutional Convention four years ago to reform the arrangements of labor in our State prisons. Under the leadership of the so-called Labor party, the Convention, I think almost against its better judgment, prohibited the method of labor by contract and by the piece which had theretofore prevailed in all our prisons, and left it possible only for the prisoners to be employed in work for the support of the other public institutions of the State. Well, all the experts, even the experts of this Conference, condemned the change. The wise and experienced administrator of prisons thought that a fatal day had come, that no work would be left for the prisoners to do, and that every State prison would perforce be converted into a lunatic asylum. Lamentations from our wisest journals,— I need not mention them, I think you know to which of them I refer, I will not be invidious about it,— all lamented and deplored the change. Well, now four years have rolled around, the amendment has been put into practical operation, and has been found to be one of the wisest and most beneficent changes for the prisoners themselves that has ever been accomplished anywhere. Now the rights and interests of labor appear really to be invaded, for their best customers were the public institutions of the State before; and every man who was clamoring for the enactment of this amendment in the interests of labor is now clamoring for its repeal in the same interest. I think this furnishes fair illustration of how even experts may learn something by new experiments and new investigations.

Delegates to this Conference, New York is with you to-night. When you see the representatives of the two great churches of New York, I might almost say of America, sitting upon this platform side by side, each eager to extend to you his cordial greeting, you have a demonstration that charity knows but one Church, one Christ, and one God. And it is not only these gentlemen to whom I have referred, and the churches which they represent, that participate in this hearty welcome, but the presence in this city and in this hall of many distinguished Hebrews shows what, I think I may safely say, every-

body knows with respect to them,— that they are the most earnest, the most hearty, and the most liberal supporters of charity that are known among us. Let the name of Montefiore stand for them all as a synonym for charity everywhere.

It had been our earnest hope that the Governor of the State would be here to-night to extend an official welcome on behalf of the State to these distinguished gentlemen from so many distant parts. But you may well understand that at the last moment, after his name had been announced as one of the speakers of this meeting, the great pressure of his public duties in the emergency that rests upon this State and this country, has compelled him most reluctantly to remain away. We had also hoped for the presence of one to whom all hearts in this land, and I might say in every land, now turn with truest affection,— I mean President William McKinley. But he has greater and better work to do, to carry out the great and humane programme with which he reluctantly consented to the war.

I shall now call upon his Honor, ex-Mayor Strong, to read a letter which he has received from the Chief Magistrate of the nation, with reference to this Conference.

Hon. William L. Strong.— *Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,*— I regret that our honored President cannot be with us this evening, but I will stand sponsor for the fact that it is not because his heart is not with us; for I believe sincerely that he has as much charity in his heart as any man on the face of the earth. But the President to-day is a busy man. We all know what grave matters occupy his time and attention at the present moment, although I must say that I think that, if he had had his way, there would not have been as great a war-cry in America as there is to-night. But there is a power above him,— Congress; and Congress declined to take his advice, and that is why the President is too busy to be with us to-night. This is what he writes: —

Executive Mansion, Washington, D.C.,
May 17, 1898.

Mr. William R. Stewart, President Twenty-fifth National Conference of Charities and Correction, New York:

My dear Sir,— For reasons already explained I cannot be present at the quarter-centennial celebration of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, the invitation to which was so courteously extended to me in person by ex-Mayor Strong, Mr. Choate, and yourself; but I cannot let the occasion pass without sending a few words expressing my good will to the undertaking.

The philanthropic work in which your members are engaged is worthy of especial praise for its practical character and wide scope. Your list of speakers and delegates is a notable one, as befits the international character of the movement.

With best wishes for the success of this very interesting occasion, and the hope that the results obtained from it will fulfil completely the expectations of its authors, I am,

Very sincerely yours,

(Signed) WILLIAM McKINLEY.

The CHAIRMAN.— In introducing his Grace, the Archbishop, I need hardly remind you that he has just celebrated his own quarter-century jubilee, which was made a testimonial of affection from citizens of all sects. How can this period of his services be better signalized than by his appearance here, representing his Church?

ADDRESS OF ARCHBISHOP CORRIGAN.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,— As a most cordial welcome has already been extended to the members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, there can be no doubt of the sincerity and warmth of the greetings with which their presence in this city is acclaimed. The kindness of so many delegates in coming to this Convention from all parts of the Union is itself a luminous proof of the spirit with which they are animated, for Charity seeketh not her own; and these devoted benefactors of humanity have journeyed to this Conference, not to seek their own interests, but to promote the uplifting of their fellow-men.

The programme announces two other addresses to precede the responses on behalf of the Conference, and this arrangement seems to indicate the extending of the right hand of fellowship by Churchmen to all who are interested in the promotion of good works. I presume my distinguished friend, Bishop Potter, has more than once had the pleasure of addressing you on similar occasions. For myself, it is my first experience; and therefore you may perhaps expect me to give some account of my attitude toward this National Conference of Charities and Correction,— some brief exposition of principles.

The Church which I have the honor of representing to-night is a veteran in the field of charity. The oldest institutions for the relief of human suffering made their first feeble beginnings under her auspices. As the centuries rolled by, experience accumulated. New wants appeared, new workers arose to step into the breach. But, throughout all these successive efforts at relieving the wants of suffering humanity, certain principles stand out conspicuously as the main tissue in a web of varied hues or the key-note in a piece of

music. If you will take, for instance, the legends of the Middle Ages, you will find scores of examples in which some good Samaritan finds by the wayside or in some abandoned spot a poor leper afflicted with that dreadful disease which was then the scourge of Europe. You will read that the good Samaritan, taking pity on the poor creature, conveys him to his house, dresses his wounds, lavishes on him every comfort and every attention that loving ingenuity could bestow; and then the features of the sick man become suddenly glorified, and reveal in the person of the leper the gracious Saviour of mankind.

Such legends are very numerous in the lives of mediæval saints. It is not to our purpose to enter into the discussion whether the alleged apparitions are historically true or how far they may be critically authenticated. I merely desire to invite attention to the underlying principle which undoubtedly exerted a most potent influence during the times in question,— a principle involved in the well-known passage of the Gospel: "Lord, when did we see thee sick or in prison, and come to thee? Amen, I say to you, As long as you did it to one of these, my least brethren, you did it to me." Charity for the Master's sake, relief of indigence, suffering, ignorance, because the poorest waif of humanity bears the impress of the divine image, and claims sonship of God, this is the principle underlying and permeating our charitable works,— asylums, hospitals, schools, houses of refuge, all the varied forms of corporal or spiritual mercy. The divine image makes all men akin. It makes us all brethren. This, in the eyes of the primitive Christians, gave to the poor slave, who was regarded by all the codes of that day as a mere chattel and nothing more, the glorious privilege of participating in the dignity of human nature. I need not quote Saint Paul to Philemon, where he asks him to take back Onesimus, thief and slave, yet also Paul's spiritual son,— "not now as a servant, but instead of a servant, a most dear brother." In penning these words, the apostle proclaimed the law of liberty. It was like the lodging of a seed in a stone wall, with but a few grains of earth to nourish it, destined, nevertheless, to grow and to thrive, so that in course of time, even though that time were centuries, it would triumph over all opposition, burst every barrier, assert and vindicate God-given freedom.

The value of the human soul, the soul made in God's likeness, was the great leading principle of Christianity. Parallel with it, or, rather, greater still, was another, the law of charity.

These two principles, if I mistake not, are the keys which explain the efforts made in past times and in this hour to elevate humanity. In a word, the aim and object is primarily supernatural, then humanitarian, resembling in this respect Christianity itself, of which it has well been said that, although intended in the first instance for the salvation of souls, still, even in the natural order, it confers so many and such lasting benefits that it could not be expected to confer larger benefits, even if instituted for this world alone,— another illustration of the saying, "Seek ye first the kingdom of God and his justice, and all things else will be added unto you."

From its very nature, charity is no narrow sentiment, but as vast as boundless heaven ; for it includes every act of kindness that can be done by man in aid of another. In this broad sense, it is the influence that has illumined and humanized the world. It is the force that made the continuance of pagan slavery, tyranny, cruelty, in the long run, impossible,— the law that constitutes every man his brother's keeper. It is Christianity, amendment to civilization.

A complete record of all the good deeds of charity we may not hope for ; for one of its characteristics is to hide itself, and not parade its beneficence. If the office of charity be to aid without pauperizing, to relieve without destroying self-respect in the recipient of its bounty, much of its best work must necessarily be done in secret. Yet as long as human nature remains what it is, as long as the causes of misfortune and poverty are not totally removed, the poor we will always have with us. There will always be the wretched to pity, the perverse to be patient with, the erring to forgive, the weak to assist, the wounded to heal. So, too, will there always be self-sacrificing men and women, whose devoted zeal and loving services no money can purchase, who will give their lives to rescue the oppressed and alleviate suffering, whether the oppression and the suffering come from the injustice of others, the degeneracy of nature, or the evil of environment.

During the next few days, problems arising from such conditions will be earnestly and thoughtfully considered. Permanent and practical reforms need time for development. Four centuries of the Christian era elapsed before the first hospital for the sick became an accomplished fact. But, once introduced, such ideas never fade away. In the discussions and interchanges of thought which will follow, many valuable additions will no doubt be made to the com-

mon fund of observation and experience; and these seeds will bring forth good fruit in due season.

I beg to congratulate the Conference in coming back to its first home to celebrate its silver wedding. No place could be more appropriate for the jubilee, one may venture to add, than this metropolis, the open gate of the nation, through which thousands and hundreds of thousands annually pass from less favored conditions to the enjoyment of civil and religious liberty. Here, too, churches, societies, individuals, vie with one another in works of mercy. The Church and people I represent are earnestly striving to do their modest part, and are willing and anxious to keep abreast of the times in all that concerns the welfare of those with whose interests they are charged. I cordially invite you to visit our charitable and benevolent institutions. Their managers will gladly welcome the members of this Conference, cheerfully afford every facility for inspection, and will be only too glad to give you the benefit of their experience and to profit by that of others in return.

I hope and trust that the labors of this Conference may be pleasant in every respect, and its results all that its most sanguine promoters can desire.

The CHAIRMAN.— *Ladies and Gentlemen,*— It is hardly necessary for me to introduce the next speaker, Bishop Potter; for I doubt whether there is any one in the hall, even amongst the delegates from the greatest distance, to whom his name is not already a familiar and an honored one. Of him it can truly be said, "None know him but to praise"; and I think I may say we all know him. We have already heard from the representative of one of the great Churches. We will now hear from the representative of the other. Ladies and gentlemen, I take great pleasure in presenting Bishop Potter.

ADDRESS OF RT. REV. HENRY C. POTTER, D.D.

Ladies and Gentlemen,— I confess that I had not conceived it possible that I should find myself more orthodox than my friend, Archbishop Corrigan; but I beg to say in this presence and in his that I accept, if I recognized it this evening, the legend which he has just recalled of Saint Elizabeth of Hungary, without the slightest difficulty. I do not believe anybody ever touched a leper, with any healthful and sacred purpose, without sooner or later seeing in the

leper the divine image. And I am profoundly thankful to Archbishop Corrigan for striking so high and fine a note at the outset of this meeting.

For, after all, ladies and gentlemen, that is the level to which such an occasion as this needs to be lifted. One of the few men of genius whom this country has produced — I mean my friend, the late Henry Ward Beecher — said once that the next worse thing to not helping a man was to help him; and that I think was a profound and enduring truth. The problems of charitable relief arise out of the conditions under which charitable relief is to be administered, and out of what it has to undertake to do for the man or the woman that it touches. In other words, in connection with organized charity,— and it is for organized charity that such an assemblage as this and the great centennial anniversary which is behind it stand,—we are constrained to remember that the moment that we begin to organize we incur, in connection with organization, a whole group of dangers of which my friend, your chairman, has had the courage to remind you to-night. One cannot help thinking that one of the most impressive features of the progress of this republic, as represented by the various works, municipal and State, is represented in such a conference as this. One hundred years ago scarcely one of them existed. One hundred years ago most of the works of charity were done, as I maintain it would be best if they could always have been done, by the individual. There are many New England men and women in this house to-night who remember well the condition of affairs in the New England village when they were boys and girls, when the village charity was entirely unorganized, but was personal and sympathetic. When it touched men and women, as a rule, it did it with the motive of somehow or other representing to them the words which Saint Peter spoke at the beautiful gate of Jerusalem when he took the lame man by the hand,— "Stand upright on thy feet."

As communities have multiplied, and as our life is becoming more and more complex every day, we are constantly reminded of the peril of institutionalized charity, and of the necessity, in connection with even the best organizations of philanthropic endeavor, of the principle that their administration, and the men who administer them, should be open to public scrutiny. Indeed, I think I should be permitted to say that it is a sacred principle that always and every-

where it is the right of the citizen, through some wisely appointed agency, to turn the strongest light into the centre of every such institution.

Mr. Choate, in opening his address, alluded to what has been done especially for the insane. I confess that it ought to be a rebuke to us who are men to remember that that was done by that other sex which as yet we do not sufficiently trust to permit them to vote. We are ready to rely upon their sympathy and their judgment in the administration of our charitable work, only to discover more and more in every way, as we do every day, how unerring that sympathy is, how wise that judgment is, and how large is the devotion which is behind them both; and, in referring to the qualities which we want in such a work as this, I may say that this Conference, whose twenty-fifth anniversary we are keeping to-night, is exactly along this line, and that our best men and women should be brought into closer relations with the Conference's great work of charity to do what they alone can do to prevent that work from becoming, however perfect the structure, however honest the administration, however decent the housing, and however good the food, in the last analysis of it a mere mechanicalization; to make it through and through to be touched with the fine fibre of human sympathy and to be conscious of the human hand.

Mr. Choate has referred this evening to the service in this country of that ancient race whose sacred Scriptures are full of their teachings in regard to the duty of human beneficence. No finer illustration occurs to me of the quality and character of such a service as may be rendered by such an association as this, than that which was furnished within the last twenty years by a young Hebrew undergraduate of Oxford, whom it was my pleasure to know when he visited this country, and who died not a great many years ago in Newport. He was a son of Sir Joseph Montefiore, a name of distinguished honor in the realms of philanthropy and in the history of his race, and a son who inherited many of his father's graces and virtues, accomplished, wealthy, with congenial companionship. And what do you think was the course of young Montefiore on a Saturday or Sunday afternoon during term time in the University of Oxford? It was to slip into his pocket a copy of the "Pickwick Club" or any other bright, cheery, or entertaining book which the time put in his hand, and walk with it three or four miles out of Oxford to the County

Union, a poorhouse, as we should say, and gather there a group of decrepit and broken old men or old women, and spend the afternoon in reading aloud to them. I confess, though most beautiful were the tributes of love and sympathy that were laid upon that young man's grave, there was no star in his crown that was brighter and more enduring than that he had taken his wealth, his culture, his youth, and given himself, for the cause of the forgotten and unfortunate of his fellow-men.

This, ladies and gentlemen, is that for which this Conference stands; that is what it bids you go and do for your needier and less favored fellows.

The CHAIRMAN.— It is now to become my pleasure to introduce a gentleman who is undoubtedly familiar to you all. He needs no better introduction than that I should ask you, Who of our private citizens can best speak for the best elements of our city? I am quite sure you would answer with one accord, Mr. Seth Low.

ADDRESS OF MR. LOW.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,— It will be evident to our visitors by this time that our welcome is not easily exhausted. I hope they will not be exhausted by it. They may well ask by what authority I venture to welcome them on behalf of the city. I know of none except your kindness, Mr. Chairman, and that of the Committee of One Hundred. It is fitting, nevertheless, that the National Conference of Charities and Correction should be welcomed to New York in the name of the city; for the city is not only host, it is student and teacher as well.

No one who has ever been at one of these gatherings can fail to be glad that our own city is to have the inspiration of the meeting this year. For it is an inspiration. Men and women from all parts of the United States, who have given years to the study and handling of the problems to be here discussed, will give us the benefit of their ripe experience and of their careful observation. We shall hear of what is being attempted in other cities and in other communities; and we shall be able to learn, if we will, by both their successes and their failures; and over and above everything else there will come to us all that new courage and hopefulness that are born of contact with earnest and devoted people, who, in their own homes and under

the differing conditions of other places, are manfully carrying on the struggle to benefit and uplift the needy and perverse. All who are engaged in that struggle here may well welcome to New York this National Conference.

And so, I am glad to think, those who come to the city from afar as members of the Conference will have reason to be glad that they have come. A great city presents the problem of charities and correction magnified to its utmost difficulty, but it is not for that reason that I welcome the Conference to New York. It is rather because here efforts are being made to cope with the problem that show the great heart of New York to be sound to the core. Here you will find generous giving and devoted personal service on a scale not altogether incommensurate with the need. The people of New York may be materialistic, but they are not mean; they may be fond of money-making, but they are generous; they may be devoted to pleasure, but they are capable of self-sacrifice. And I do not know of any community in which more men and women are at work who really are the salt of the earth.

As one contemplates the vast sweep of the ocean and its resistless power, it seems at times as if no living thing could resist its attacks. Yet right in the midst of the ocean the coral insects rear with delicate tracery their enduring abodes, which in time afford foundation and shelter for the homes of men. Even so, beneath the waves of the great ocean of need and of wrong-doing that at times seem as if they might engulf the very city itself, there are at work innumerable agencies for relief and for uplifting, each one by itself hopelessly weak as compared with the aggregate of the need, but all together providing many a harbor of refuge and many a peaceful home for those who have been victims of the storm. But still these agencies may learn much as to the necessity of working together and with a single purpose from the insects that make the coral island.

The heart of New York is not at fault: where New York has failed, it has failed because it has attempted to love God, as represented in his poor and his weak and his wandering ones, with all its heart and with all its soul, but not with all its mind and with all its strength. It has permitted conditions of life to grow up in the city that nullify its best efforts at relief; and it too often has attempted to drain dry with buckets great and deep channels that run full of the evil consequences of neglected homes, neglected chil-

dren, and neglected people. But even in these regards there has been marked improvement of late years. More intelligent and more persistent efforts have been made to go to the root of evils and to remove the cause rather than to modify the effect. Tenement houses are better lighted, better ventilated, and better plumbed than they were. Public schools and public playgrounds, though still inadequate in supply, are not so hopelessly inadequate as they used to be. Small parks and recreation piers have done something to brighten life in the crowded districts of the city. And, beyond all this, the tendency to work together on the part of all engaged in relieving distress and uplifting those that are down and saving the wayward, I am happy to believe, grows surely, even if, as yet, only slowly.

Some day we shall all perceive that the public agencies of charity and correction as well as the private agencies, the church agency and the unsectarian, corporate agencies and the individual, are all engaged in the same work,— that they are all wheels in the great engine by which, through the power of its human sympathy and its divine pity, the great city is striving to benefit the most helpless of its people. When that day comes, there will be less friction, less loss of power, less working at cross-purposes, and a stronger determination to insist upon efficiency everywhere and upon mutually trustful co-operation. When that day has fully come, problems that now baffle and stagger us will be looked upon only as opportunities whereby the city, through its rich service to humanity, may justify its right to be.

Because the National Conference of Charities and Correction, by its teaching, by its work, and most of all by its spirit, helps to speed the coming of that happy day, I bid you welcome to the city of New York. In the name of the city of New York you are welcome for your cause, welcome for the sake of the services you have rendered in this cause, and thrice welcome because of the inspiration that you have brought and will leave behind you.

The Chairman.— *Ladies and Gentlemen,*— We have all listened with a great deal of pleasure to the remarks that have been made this evening; but I think it is time that we heard from some of the delegates to this Conference from other cities, and rid them of any impression that they are only here to be talked to. This week they are to be our teachers. We are to sit at their feet and learn of them. They are the wise men from the East, from the West, from the North,

and from the South, bringing with them their richest gifts of wisdom and experience. We shall have the pleasure of hearing from several of them to-night; and, first, I shall have the pleasure of presenting to you Mr. Alexander Johnson, of Indiana, who was the President of the last Conference, the Twenty-fourth Conference, held at Toronto.

Address of Mr. Johnson.

Mr. President, Members of the National Conference, and Ladies and Gentlemen of New York,— When the invitation of the Metropolitan City was accepted last year at Toronto, the members of the Conference began to anticipate that the twenty-fifth session would surpass all previous meetings of the kind in attendance, in interest, and in the culture and intellectual strength of those who should take part. Our Conference had its birth here, in the Empire State and City; but during the twenty-four years that have passed since then we have met and have been welcomed in many cities and States. We have been called to order near the Golden Gate and under the shadow of the Washington Monument, beside the Falls of St. Anthony and near the historic fort where the morning sun shone on the star-spangled banner, waving as it waved at night-fall. We have sat beside the swift rushing waters of the Mississippi and by the meeting-place of the Father of Waters with his bride, in sight of the snowy peaks of the Rocky Mountains, on the shores of the Great Lakes, and in the beautiful City of the Straits, at the æsthetic Hub of culture, and in many towns of the wild and woolly West. Had you not, Mr. President, prepared for our opening meeting something more than ordinary, we should certainly have been disappointed; but the magnificent foretaste of a Conference which you have spread before us to-night has indeed been impressive. It is a happy augury of a meeting which shall go beyond all the previous twenty-four in numbers, in depth of earnestness, and in usefulness in the service of God and man.

You are good enough, Mr. President, to call on me as spokesman for the West. I believe that the name of my State has in it a suggestion of remoteness and wildness. Indiana smacks of the native red man, of scalps and tomahawks, just as Buffalo reminds us of big game, and was supposed to be a Western city, because of its name, long after it looked very Eastern to the dwellers on the plains and prairies.

Perhaps, as we look from the seaboard towards the sunset, the distances foreshorten, and Cleveland, Chicago, Indianapolis, St. Paul and Omaha, Denver and Salt Lake City, San Francisco and Portland, seem like near neighbors. At least, they are alike in that they are all far distant. But, if we, who have our homes east of the centre of population hesitate about speaking for so large and varied a territory, the average distance of which from us is twice that of ours from the coast, it is not because we do not still feel some of the buoyancy, hopefulness, and, perhaps, unduly self-assertive energy which are supposed to be characteristic of Westerners. It is rather because we possess in still larger measure that modesty, and even bashfulness, in the presence of those older and wiser than ourselves, which, every traveller has observed, is the distinguishing trait of those who live by the setting sun.

And then, too, we may perhaps be allowed to distinguish between the West and the Far West. In that case we and those near us may admit that we are West, while all beyond the Missouri is Far West. Our friends in Omaha will say that Denver is Far West, Denver will say it is Salt Lake, and Salt Lake will pass it on to California. The Californians will say that Alaska is the Far West; and the Alaskans will say, "No, the Far West is the Philippine Islands."

And this is not idle talk, my friends, if it teaches us that sectional lines are down. Was there once an East and a West, a North and a South, with different aspirations and clashing interests? Thank God, that time has gone by forever. We have forgotten the dividing lines.

The benign influence of this great Conference has been felt wherever it has gone. Not only at the time of its meetings, but for long afterward, its stimulating and tonic effect has remained. But the Central States, as we like best to call our part of the Union, have perhaps, benefited more than any other portion. This has been partly because the Conference came to us first while our institutions and methods were comparatively plastic, so that we could form aright rather than reform under its sway, and partly because so many of our meetings have been held in the large cities to which our States are tributary.

Another reason for and source of the influence to which I have alluded, the useful influence of this Conference, is found in the character and methods of the Boards of State Charities of the States of

Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. These six States, having contiguous territory, have organized their Boards of State Charity upon similar if not identical lines. They have worked together and helped each other without jealousy or rivalry. Their capable and vigorous Secretaries have often been called on for missionary work in their own, each other's, and even in distant States.

I do not wish to be understood for a moment as disparaging the splendid aid of the members and Secretaries of the Boards of State Charities of Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and other States; but it is certainly within the limit to say that the brunt of the work of organizing and carrying on this great National Conference has been borne, that that continuity so necessary to certain development has been supplied, that that persistent interest needed to tide over periods of depression and comparative lack of success has been constantly exhibited, more by the Boards of Charities of the six States I have named than by all the rest of the nation combined. But, if so, they have had their reward. The Conference was planned for usefulness, and it has been most useful to us and ours.

But not only in benevolent work has the influence of this council of charity permeated. The prisoner has felt the wave of sympathy which has united charities with correction, and made us believe they are each a part of the one effort for human advancement. Not only among the trustees and officers of the great State institutions, those prominent persons who are always in the public eye, and who are a constant target for public criticism, has the Conference helped to take from partisan attacks their fiercest rancor, and to abolish favoritism and party influence with their baneful effects. The county or town almshouse, the orphanage, the jail, and the workhouse are all better, cleaner, and saner because of its work. In cities of half a million population and in the small, remote villages the poor relief is less recklessly and hurtfully scattered, the sick are better nursed, the orphans are better trained, the incorrigible have a better chance for reform; and all this is due, directly or indirectly, to the influence of this Conference, and is a result of its teachings.

I may say, Mr. President, for the West, or that part of it which I may claim to represent, that, excepting only the Church, no single agency for usefulness has had such far-reaching and beneficial effects as the National Conference of Charities and Correction. With us its influence and power for good has grown and still grows steadily year by year.

And, even as we learn to know and understand the true conditions of the life of the depressed and desolate people whose sorrows or sins call us together, we are not more despondent: we are more hopeful. The possibilities of humanity cheer us more than its despairs depress us. Not as idle sentimentalists, gazing with pity on pains and woes we cannot assuage, but as sympathetic, hopeful helpers do we come, to consider the cares and distress of these our weaker brothers and sisters. In this spirit we find strength and heart to sustain our work and to continue it,— a work which we did not begin. It was given us in trust by our fathers and mothers. It is a work which will not end with our children, to whom we shall hand it down; but yet we believe it will not always be so irksome, so full of anxiety, as it is now.

For, though we believe that human suffering and sorrow will endure while sin shall last, we also believe that the worst evils afflicting humanity are not irremediable; and we hope that, as true civilization shall advance, even

> "The fierce confederate storms of sorrow,
> Barricadoed ever within the walls of cities,"

shall in a large degree be stilled. In that hope we come year by year to this Conference. In that hope we have come to this great city. In that hope we accept your gracious looks and words of welcome, and assure you that your sentiments find an echo in our hearts.

The CHAIRMAN.— In presenting the next speaker, I feel called upon to say a few words, and only a few, of introduction. I remember him first in the Sophomore Class at Harvard, where he and I successively resisted the rushes on the football field. He has been in this Conference from the beginning, and he has been constant in his attendance on this Conference for more than twenty years. I refer to Mr. Frank B. Sanborn, of Concord, who is the Wise Man from the East with us to-night, and who was the President of the Eighth Conference. I take great pleasure in presenting Mr. Sanborn.

ADDRESS OF MR. F. B. SANBORN.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,— It is the sad prerogative of age to be called upon for the recital of past events which have escaped the notice of the historian; and who can wonder if, like Nestor

in Homer, we sometimes abuse the privilege, and undertake to make history instead of only reciting it? If, in responding to these generous welcomes, the eloquence of Nestor is denied me, I can at least promise you not to make so long a speech as he did, and not to insist so positively on the superior strength and wisdom of the men of the past.

It is twenty-four years, to the month, if not to the day, since this truly National Conference first came together in this city of New York and in the hall where we are to meet after this evening. It was called together by a Department Committee of the American Social Science Association, which had itself been founded nine years earlier, in October, 1865, upon the invitation of the State Board of Charities of Massachusetts,— the only one then existing,— and had grown into a society of some importance.

You well remember, Mr. President, that, when we were beginning to be taught those beautiful truths of geometry which are supposed to lie at the foundation of all existence in time and space, and which are at once so simple and so hard to remember, we were told that space began with a point, a mere dot. We listened, but felt as Tom Sheridan did when told to prove that three angles of a triangle were equal to two right angles: he went to his tutor, and said, "Please, sir, was Euclid a good man?" "Yes," said the tutor, "I believe he was. Why?" "Well, sir," said Tom, "was he a moral man, a truthful man?" "Certainly," said the tutor, wondering what Tom was driving at. "Then," said Tom, "can't we take his word for all this?" holding up the problem. But to resume: we were taught as a great fundamental principle of geometry that everything proceeds from a dot, a point; that its motion generates a line, straight or curved, as the case may be; the motion of the line generates a surface, and the revolution of the surface develops the solid; and thus the whole universe of solid existence, and of superficial existence has come into existence in this interesting but mysterious way. The great globe itself, then, must have been produced by the revolution of curved lines. I cannot say that we distinctly understood this generation of the visible from the invisible, any more than we could positively answer that conundrum of the Schoolmen, "Whether a Chimera, burbling in a vacuum, could make a meal on Second Intentions."

Well, I have since seen the miracle performed,— a point invisible

GROUP OF PRESIDENTS.

Hon. William R. Stewart, 1898. Mr. Robert Treat Paine, 1895. Rev. H. H. Hart, 1893. Prof. C. R. Henderson, Pres.-elect, 1899.
Mr. Alexander Johnson, 1897. Mr. Lucius Storrs, 1894. Mr. A. O. Wright, 1896.

Mr. Philip C. Garrett, 1885. Mr. F. B. Sanborn, 1881. Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, 1880. Hon. Wm. P. Letchworth, 1884. Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, 1888.

from New York generating the line and the surface called Social Science, and the annual revolution of that superficial area generating this hard and fast solid, the National Conference of Charities and Correction. How it was done is still something of a mystery, like the creation of the world from chaos which old Silenus described. I believe Virgil mentions the creation of the universe, or of this part of it upon which we are permitted to dwell, in words something like these, speaking through Silenus, who, I understand, was a lawyer, undertaking to instruct younger persons than himself: —

> " He sung the secret seeds of Nature's frame,
> How Seas, and Earth, and Air, and active Flame
> Fell through the mighty void, and in their fall
> Were blindly gathered to this goodly ball."

So our mystery was fully solved to my mind when I saw four State Boards in the city of New York in 1874 generate this Conference. There were anciently four elements,— water, earth, air, and fire. Representatives of the State Boards of Massachusetts, New York, Connecticut, and Wisconsin, were present on the occasion of our first Conference. The State Board of Massachusetts represented water, that of New York represented earth, the State of Connecticut embodied air, and the State of Wisconsin incarnated fire, the "active Flame." Passing over the fluid elements of Massachusetts and Connecticut, we had the *terra firma* of New York incarnated in the late Mr. Pruyn and Dr. Bishop, and those two survivors of the four, Mr. W. P. Letchworth and Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, both since Presidents of the Conference. Dr. Hoyt has been the most faithful in attendance of all our veterans, having been present at twenty-four out of twenty-five annual meetings, and only prevented by illness from attending the other, at Grand Rapids. Let me impress Dr. Hoyt's distinction, in attending all but one of our Conferences, upon the minds of all younger members, and say to them, "Go thou and do likewise."

The Wisconsin fiery element in the Conference was then represented by Mr. Henry Giles, and Mrs. W. P. Lynde, of whom neither survives. I give Wisconsin this calorific designation, because no State has been so actively reformatory, or has more completely changed the old order of things, than did Messrs. Elmore and Giles in their period of official service. They had much to do, and they

did it in a short time. They were also an energetic burning element in the organization of our Conference, shown by the fact that Wisconsin has three times had the Presidency of our organization, while the modesty of Massachusetts has confined us to one Presidency in 1881 and another in 1894. New York, as befits her imperial position, has had four Presidents, Ohio three, Illinois and Indiana two, while the quiet followers of William Penn have contented themselves with a single President, Mr. Garrett, who so constantly meets with us.

Our first meeting was in New York; and I see, ladies and gentlemen, that we did not wear our welcome out. It was very small, as I have said, only four of nine existing State Boards of Charities being represented, the whole audience hardly exceeding fifty, being one of quality rather than quantity. Among them were the Rev. Dr. John Hall and Dr. Stephen Smith of New York, the late Charles Loring Brace, Dr. Robert T. Davis, then of New York, but afterwards a Congressman from Massachusetts, and still living at Fall River, and Mrs. Caroline H. Dall, one of the founders of the Social Science Association. The Second Conference at Detroit in 1875 was much more largely attended, and all the existing State Boards took part in it except Connecticut and Kansas. Governors of States and candidates for the Presidency began to see the importance of our movement, and at Saratoga in 1876 and Cincinnati in 1878 we had the presence or the co-operation of Governor Tilden and President Hayes. But we still held to an alliance with the Social Science Association, which had been our foster-mother, until, at Cincinnati, Mr. Elmore of Wisconsin and Mr. Lord of Michigan cut the parental tie, and made our Conference as independent as the United States is of the mother country. Since 1879, when we met by ourselves at Chicago, our Conference has gone on growing, like the nation it represents, and now far exceeds in numbers, publications, and influence the Association which gave it birth.

"In a great age," said the wise Frenchman, and I suppose it is equally true of a great State, "everything is great"; and the rapid growth and great advances of the Conference of Charities seem to me partly owing to the fact that we came into existence in this great city of the greater State of New York. And now we have come back, after an absence of almost a quarter of a century, to cast anchor where we first ran up our flag.

The CHAIRMAN.— *Ladies and Gentlemen,*— I shall now have the pleasure of introducing one of the delegates from the South, Mr. Jeffrey R. Brackett, of Baltimore, an ex-Trustee of the Poor of that city; and I feel sure that Mr. Brackett, who is the last speaker to-night, will add much to the words of wisdom we have already heard, and give us all something to think about and something to learn. I have the pleasure of presenting Mr. Brackett.

ADDRESS OF MR. JEFFREY R. BRACKETT.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,— I have been introduced as representing the South, but that is something I cannot pretend to do to-night. Born and bred a Yankee of the Yankees, I got but a little way beyond Mason and Dixon's line when I dropped my carpet-bag, and am a citizen of Maryland only by adoption on my part and by the graciousness of my neighbors. I can only interpret my standing here to mean that now in any warfare for humanity's sake, whether bearing onward the stars and stripes or the banner of charity, we are all one: there is no borderland, no North and no South.

But I know well the broad Southland; and in behalf of its members in the National Conference I heartily thank you, honored officials of the Church and State, and gentlemen of the Committee of Arrangements, and citizens of New York, for all that you have said and all that you are doing and all that you are to do for this Conference. I thank you not only in behalf of those of the South who are here, but also in behalf of those who, unable to leave their posts of duty far away, are waiting to learn, through us and the press and the Conference Report, the words which are spoken here of encouragement and help. Our members in the South are comparatively few. If I cannot thank you as one of those would speak who live in the very heart of the South, nearest its typical life, and who feel most the weight of its peculiar burdens, yet I can say to you, citizens of New York and members of the Conference, what they would not say: I can speak of *them*, of the splendid efforts that they are making against great odds to carry into practice the spirit of the National Conference. In States not favored with wealth, with a scattered population largely made up of a race peculiarly lacking as yet in power of self-control, a few earnest souls are fighting for better things. All honor to them,— to the prison reformers of Georgia, to Searcy, Phillips, and Miss Tutwiler of Alabama, to Heymann, West-

feldt, and their associates in New Orleans, and to others whom we would name,— honor to all of them!

Earnest souls everywhere, working in the field of charities or correction to better their fellow-men, know well the lofty purpose and the usefulness of the National Conference. This day the Conference, in the strength and enthusiasm of young manhood, visits for the first time the place of its birth; and I would add a few words spoken truly from the heart on behalf of the many young members of the Conference who have known it a few years only, but whose lives from its influences have been made happier and, we trust, better. You, gentlemen, who stood as sponsors for the Conference, who watched over its tender years, who have been its counsellors in youth, and see it now in such vigor and usefulness, you should look back with honest pride, should look forward with confidence. And the best thanks which we younger members can give for all that you have done for us is the promise that we, in our turn and in our places, whatever and wherever they may be, will do our best to see that the National Conference as it reaches maturity shall be just as vigorous, just as useful.

Let us to-night strike loud and clear the key-note of this Conference,— that to its sessions we will bring, each and all of us, our first interest and best thought, that from it we will take home increased knowledge, enthusiasm, devotion. What a privilege it is to live to-day, to see that progress in the welfare of mankind which earnest men of former generations longed to see in vain! But it is not rest, it is labor onward and upward, that makes life glorious; and we know by experience, as we believe by faith, that if we, each one of us, shall labor, however limited our fields of activity may be, our common humanity, not merely the sick, the suffering, the degraded, to whom we minister, but ourselves as well, all our common humanity, will be lifted up higher, will be made holier.

The contrast between the First and the Twenty-fifth Conferences in the city of New York, touched on by Mr. Sanborn in his remarks, is not wholly to be explained by the generous activity of the friends of humanity there or by the remarkable growth of the United States in the intervening period, with the rapid development of all the problems of humanity requiring solution, which such a growth im-

plies. The Conference itself has had a history, and one which goes far to interpret its continuing success and its now wide-reaching influence. The Detroit Conference, in connection with a general meeting of the Social Science Association in that city, was so fully reported and so well attended by the citizens of Michigan, then presided over by the energetic Governor Bagley, who took the chair at the first session, that it was commended to the attention of a large section of our North-western fellow-citizens. Their interest in such conferences had been invited years before by the State Boards of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Illinois, and has never failed in subsequent years. In 1876 we met at Saratoga in the midst of an active Presidential campaign, and were welcomed to New York by one of the candidates, Governor Tilden, who was strongly and wisely interested in the development and management of public charities. It was he who appointed to membership in the State Board of New York in that very year, 1876, Mrs. Lowell, who has since distinguished herself and her State so much by her labors in our field. In the Fourth Conference, also held at Saratoga in 1877, we had the presence and co-operation of Theodore Roosevelt, father of the gentleman who now bears that honored name. He was a member of the New York Board for several years, and at his untimely death we all felt that we had lost one who would have carried forward very wisely and steadily the work of the National Conference.

From the first a subject which never fails to interest the community from the fact of its universality and unfortunate increase — insanity — came very much under discussion in the Conference; and the position taken by several eminent members in regard to its treatment, the buildings suitable for its reception, and the general supervision of its management, attracted much notice, and drew experts and philanthropists to our meetings to hear it discussed. At Cleveland, in 1880, the Conference was so fortunate as to bring to substantial agreement the formerly diverse views of some of the most eminent experts in the country upon the points above mentioned; the late Dr. J. P. Bancroft, of New Hampshire, being then the chairman of the committee on the general subject of insanity. New questions since arising have introduced differences of opinion, as is but natural; but these, as indicated in the debates of the Twenty-fifth Conference, are again in a way to be settled by agreement on the main points. The need of State action in regard

to insanity, however, and the manifest importance of new agencies for settling what that action should be, had much to do with the early creation of State Boards and the readiness shown by those boards to assemble in a national conference.

The same is true of the question of immigration, which occupied the time of the early Conferences proportionately more than has been needful of late. The policy of the country was unsettled in 1875–80 in regard to the restriction or promotion of immigration; and there was a necessity for suggestion and guidance which is no longer so perceptible, since laws of Congress and administrative instrumentalities of the federal government have now so regulated the matter as to be generally satisfactory. This regulation has somewhat diminished the powers and duties of certain State boards; but the kindred matter of interstate migration, not yet regulated by national law, gives such boards occupation and discussion enough.

Naturally, from the fact that our Conference grew out of the wish and consent of the State Boards of Public Charity,— the way having been pointed out by the boards of Wisconsin, Illinois, and Michigan in 1871–73,— a constant subject of debate has been the powers and proper duties of such boards. We began the systematic consideration of the subject at the Sixth Conference in Chicago in 1879, and have usually appointed a standing committee to report thereon. Every aspect of it has been presented in the addresses and reports devoted to it or in the animated debate certain to follow the advocacy of any particular system to be applied to all the States of the Union. Experience has shown, as indeed was predicted from the first by the founders of the Conference, that no single system or form of administrative powers could be made to apply to every State; differing as these do in population, classification of dependants and delinquents, financial ability and readiness, exposure to inroads of pauperism or crime, and in other less important ways. Consequently, the twenty-one States now maintaining State Boards of Charities vary in the requirements and the legal or customary powers of the boards to an extent which would exact a page of explanation if set forth fully. Several boards (Rhode Island, Kansas, Wisconsin, Iowa, for example) manage and control the State establishments, appoint their officers, direct their policy, and expend their revenues. They may have other duties in regard to local or private charities, county prisons, etc.; but the control of State

establishments is the chief function, and they are apt to be called "Boards of Control." Their members may be salaried or unpaid, but the tendency is to give them salaries; and there seems to be also a slight tendency to substitute this controlling board in States that have maintained advisory and supervisory boards for years. When this is not done, the powers of the less administrative boards are apt to be made more extensive, as in the case of the New York Board, which, even now that the inspection of prisons and the supervision of insanity have been given to separate boards, exercises under the new constitution more comprehensive and extensive powers than when our Conference began. As a Conference, we have always advocated the creation of State Boards, no matter what their original form, being well assured that experience will show both their utility and the best mode of procedure. The duty of all States in this important matter was clearly set forth by President Stewart in his opening address of this year.

Growing in importance, and second only to the due regulation of public charities by State governments, has been the noble but arduous and perplexing work popularly known as "Charity Organization." Strictly speaking, this is the associating of charities in a given location (usually a large city) rather than the organizing of charitable work for the whole civil community. It first made its active appearance at the Boston Conference of 1881, holding enthusiastic sessions, and printing extended reports of papers and debates. Such has been the custom of the charity organization societies ever since, and much of the interest felt in our Conferences and the increased attendance of delegates has been due to the activity of persons devoted to this special work. The great city of New York, where charity has been organized, at last, in a very effective manner, and where the magnificent building in which many of the sectional meetings of 1898 were convened attests the new spirit of the associated charities, witnessed, of course, a full consideration of this part of the business of the Conference. The reports here published will prove how valuable these discussions must have been. Particular attention is called to the unique work of Mr. Folks in collecting, as was never done before, the facts concerning municipal charities in more than sixty American cities.

Great pains have been taken from the very beginning of our Conferences to secure useful reports from the State delegates and Corre-

sponding Secretaries concerning the circumstances of each and every State in the nation. The results have not always been satisfactory; but since the appointment of a permanent Secretary and the maintenance of a small special Committee on Reports from States this feature of the annual volume has acquired a new value, and seldom have the facts so collected been more usefully presented than at the Twenty-fifth Conference. Few can be aware of the extreme difficulty of procuring and compiling the information desired under this head, although every one recognizes its value, when systematically collected year after year on the same general scale. It was one of the first tasks imposed on its statistical members by the New York Conference of 1874, and it has involved great labor since on the part of such members and officers of the Conference. But, now that the proper method has been found out by practice and by successive failures, there seems no reason why this work should not be better and better performed in each recurring year.

The interesting and serious work of caring for orphan and neglected children and for the reformation of the early vicious has never been neglected by the Conference. How, indeed, could it be in a body of which Mr. Letchworth of New York, Mrs. Lynde of Wisconsin, Mr. Randall of Michigan, Mrs. Richardson of Massachusetts, Mr. Byers of Ohio, Mrs. Cooper of California, Mr. and Mrs. Fairbank of Connecticut, and other good friends of poor children were active members? Much has been done in the past quarter-century to better the condition of these hopeful subjects of public charity, and we have reason to believe that our Conference has been instrumental in this improvement. Special attention has been given to special branches of this subject, as to the care of foundling children by the late Dr. Wheelwright and Mrs. Dr. Crawford of Massachusetts, and the training of feeble-minded and epileptic children by Dr. Knight, Dr. Flood, and others. To the general treatment of epilepsy the New York Conference gave particular consideration, in view of the valuable results secured by Dr. Peterson, Dr. Spratling, and our veteran associate, Dr. C. S. Hoyt, in the new Craig Colony of New York, at Sonyea.

The topic of Prison Reform has occupied the Conference less since 1882, when the National Prison Association was reorganized at Saratoga, and subsequently took up this question effectively. Yet it cannot be wholly neglected by our society; and at the Louis-

ville Conference of 1883 a trenchant and salutary discussion of the convict lease system of the South (now mostly abandoned or under condemnation) was opened by Mr. Cable, who then for the first time gave us the benefit of his alert and picturesque treatment of whatever topic he undertakes. There is still need of our attention to prisons, especially in regard to the intrusion of party politics in a matter where only fitness and penal science should be recognized in the selection of officers.

Occasional subjects for consideration, such as the condition of the American Indians, the care of veteran soldiers and sailors in public establishments, the laws of pauper settlement, the contrast between State and local charity, etc., have occupied the attention of the Conferences from time to time, without claiming that constant share of attention which belongs to the matters already named. It is convenient to deal with such topics in an association like ours, where religious and political dissensions are excluded, and a near approach to impartiality is secured by the principles and methods of the organization.

In the many years that the Conference has taken up for debate the serious evil of political interference with the work of public charity, few persons have appeared in defence of such interference; nor can that term be exactly applied to the interesting address made by the present head of the public charities of what used to be New York City, and is now the Borough of Manhattan, Mr. Keller. He favored party government; but the condition of neglect in which, he says, he found some parts of his department of municipal charities was itself evidence that partisan interference with the best management of public charity had long been taking place there. Nothing else has been found to produce the very conditions described by Mr. Keller. Mere incompetence would not have been allowed to bear sway long enough to generate them, were it not for the alternate action of parties existing for other objects, but directed toward this part of the public service only to its permanent harm. The quarter-century experience of this Conference must be allowed to outweigh the buoyant expectations and the honorable intentions of those whose experience is limited to a few months or years. A longer experience is sure to convert them to the opinion here expressed. The great difficulty is to make such opinion practically available in the administration of public charity and in the care and discipline

of prisoners. The earnest remonstrances of Professor Henderson's committee, and the exhortations of Mr. Schurz and Mrs. Lowell, did not quite smooth away this difficulty. There must some way be found to make these branches of the public service less attractive to the seeker after spoils, and to adapt the technical requirements of the civil service laws to the practical needs of a business administration. This can hardly be said now to have been discovered. The civil service tests exclude certain forms of incompetence: they do not furnish the exact kind of competence which is wanted. But the discussion of the question in New York will prove useful in leading the public to look a little more closely into the details of a subject which is largely a matter of detail, after the broad general principles of civil service reform are accepted.

An acute presentation of the general principles of public relief to the needy, by Rev. J. H. Wines, chairman of a special committee on that topic, brought into light some features of the subject not always considered by those who make sharp distinctions, of the old-fashioned sort, between "indoor" and "outdoor" relief. Following this was an account, by another member of the committee, of the unexpected good results from a system of strict "settlement" laws, in the way of compelling investigation and precise knowledge of the relations and conditions of the applicants for public aid. Wherever such strict laws exist (as in Massachusetts and some other States), they furnish the means of an exact knowledge of the state of the poor, which can be the only sound basis in any system of charity, public or private. The abuses of the so-called "outdoor relief," unhappily too common, are reduced to a minimum where such knowledge is registered and acted upon.

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Closely allied to these abuses of outdoor aid — indeed, a branch of the same broad subject — is the abuse of medical charities, in regard to which the Twenty-fifth Conference held a debate of great value, as exhibiting distinctly the two sides of the shield in this affair. At the Detroit Conference of 1875 this topic first came up for discussion, upon a report made by the late George S. Hale of Boston, who long co-operated in that reorganization of the Boston charities of which Mayor Quincy spoke at New York. But there has never been a debate more fully covering the points affected by the wide range of medical charities which modern civilization affords and requires than that reported in the present volume.

The ever-present, ever-pressing topics of great variety coming under the general title of Insanity can never all be considered at a single session of the Conference. Indeed, they multiply from decade to decade, and are now far more numerous and solicit attention more than twenty-five years ago. Three or four of them were debated in New York: laboratory work in hospitals, now so much more advanced than even five years since; immigration and insanity: prevention of feeble-mindedness; after-care of discharged patients, etc. The presence of more specialists than usual in these discussions was a gratifying fact, and they were heard with attention. Some impatience was expressed, however, by veterans of the Conference, at a lack of practicality in some of the measures warmly, if rather vaguely, advocated,— the Conference being largely composed in its permanent membership, of persons constantly occupied with the practical side of such questions as they understand. It must be said, then, that considerations purely theoretic, or which require for their development in practice more money than is usually at the command of public officers who deal directly with the great majority of the insane,— always indigent persons, supported as well as treated at the cost of tax-payers,— such considerations are sometimes to be heard, and that with patience, even by the most practical. Out of them may come in time, as have come in times past, reforms the most direct and radical; and there are minds, often of high powers, which are more profitably devoted to pure science rather than to its every-day applications.

A most useful feature of our Conferences for nearly twenty years has been the annual Conference Sermon, enforcing among our members the fundamental truth that charity and the improvement of the race have a religious basis, and are never to be viewed solely from the economic or even the purely philanthropic side. This observance, and the meetings in various churches on Sunday evenings (also an occasional feature of our sessions), have a twofold effect. They impress the hearts of the hearers, and they convey to the clergy who participate new suggestions as to the share the churches and synagogues may take in a work which appeals so strongly to the religious emotions. The impressive services of this year at Grace Church, and the earnest discourse of Rev. Dr. Huntington, will not readily be forgotten by such as participated there.

Particularly noteworthy was the harmony, among much diversity

of opinion, which characterized the Conference of 1898. As the scope of our work enlarges, the opportunities for strife increase; but these were neutralized in New York by the outpouring of a generous sentiment, worthy of a city so vast and a gathering so comprehensive; and the elders of the Conference found themselves, at its close, admiring the unanimity of feeling in so great a diversity of interest and of speculative doctrine. May this be a continuing state of mind and heart!

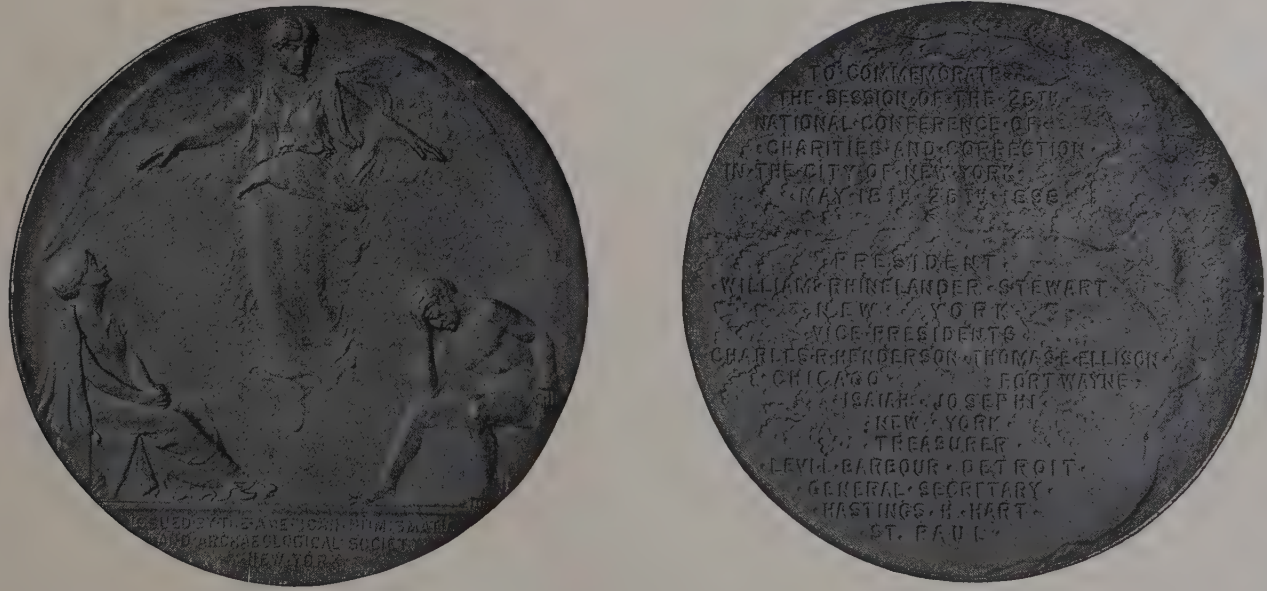
Certain new and artistic circumstances connected with the New York Conference call for brief and separate mention.

THE NEW CONFERENCE SEAL.

The action of the Conference in adopting as its official seal the obverse of the medal prepared in commemoration of the Twenty-fifth session makes fitting a brief account of the original emblem. Once entered on his duties as President of the Twenty-fifth National Conference, Mr. William R. Stewart conceived the idea of a suitable souvenir to mark the celebration of the quarter-centennial of the organization. He finally determined that the passing of so important a milestone in its history should be observed by the striking of a medal as an enduring memento.

Early in November, 1897, Mr. Stewart opened correspondence with the American Numismatic and Archæological Society through its president, Mr. Andrew C. Zabriskie. This eminent society has each year the custom to strike a medal commemorative of some historic personage or some event of public moment. An example of the society's work is the Grant memorial medal issued at the time of the dedication of the monument to General Grant in New York. In his letter to President Zabriskie, asking the co-operation of his society, Mr. Stewart wrote, "The event, if it can be thus commemorated, will make record of the charitable services gratuitously rendered by representative humanitarians throughout the land."

The executive committee of the Numismatic Society responded favorably by appointing five gentlemen to represent the society in the preparation of such a medal; namely, Mr. George Macculloch Miller, chairman, and Messrs. Samuel P. Avery, Edward Groh, James P. Wilson, and Charles Gregory. Mr. Victor D. Brenner, a Russian, educated in Paris and having a studio in New York, was invited to prepare a sketch. Mr. Brenner's design for the Muhlenberg medal, struck in commemoration of the completion of the new St. Luke's Hospital in New York City, had already marked him as one of the



MEDAL ISSUED BY THE AMERICAN NUMISMATIC AND ARCHÆOLOGICAL SOCIETY TO COMMEMORATE THE TWENTY-FIFTH NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

rising men in his profession. At Mr. Stewart's suggestion the artist adopted for his general theme the representation of an angel of mercy coming to the relief of two figures typical of Poverty and Crime. The artist was peculiarly happy in his treatment of this idea.

On the right in the group sits a mother symbolizing Poverty. Her arms are outstretched, her hands, convulsively clasped, rest upon one knee, while her upturned face wears an expression of pressing appeal mingled with hope. Seated opposite the figure of Poverty is a youth typifying Crime. His limbs are of muscular proportions. One arm is manacled at the wrist. In sharp contrast to the attitude of the mother, the head of this criminal rests heavily in the hand which is free; and his look is that of dogged despair.

The central and principal figure of the group is the winged form of Charity, or Angel of Mercy, who is represented descending to the relief of Poverty; while at the same time the eyes of the figure are fixed upon the criminal with an expression of pity tempered with justice. The wings and hands of the angel are outstretched over both the mother and the prisoner, thus conveying the idea of guardianship of each.

At the base of the medal run the words: "Issued by the American Numismatic and Archæological Society, New York." On the reverse is an oak entwined with ivy, the whole symbolizing strength, unity, and friendship. Beneath the spreading branches of the tree is this inscription: —

TO COMMEMORATE
THE SESSION OF THE 25TH
NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF
CHARITIES AND CORRECTION
IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK
MAY 18TH–25TH, 1898.

Then follow the names of the officers of the Twenty-fifth Conference.

The medals are three inches in diameter. Fifteen of them, each weighing five ounces, were struck in silver, 1,000 fine. The recipients of the silver medals were the general officers and official reporter of the New York Conference; Hon. Joseph H. Choate, chairman of the Local Committee and of the opening meeting at Carnegie Hall; Judge Joseph F. Daly, vice-chairman of the committee; and Mr. Jacob H. Schiff, its treasurer; together with Archbishop M. A. Corrigan, Bishop Henry C. Potter, President Seth Low of Columbia University, and Hon. William L. Strong, who delivered addresses at the opening of the quarter-centennial session; and Rev. William R. Huntington, D.D., who delivered the Conference sermon. Two hundred and thirty-five bronze medals were also distributed to the ex-Presidents of the Conference and the speakers at the twenty-fifth

annual meeting; to the members of the standing committees in attendance at the session and among members of the Local Committee of One Hundred; to the managers of the local office and others who had contributed time or money to make the anniversary a memorable success. In acknowledgment of the gift each recipient of a medal gave President Stewart his autograph signature in a book prepared for the purpose. It may be doubted if there can be found in the pages of a single volume the autographs of an equal number of individuals bent upon ministering to the needs of the unfortunate.

A condition upon which the American Numismatic and Archæological Society issued the original medal was that, after a sufficient number had been struck, the dies should be deposited with the society for cancellation. Before the fulfilment of this condition, however, it seemed fitting to officers and members of the Conference and of the Local Committee of Arrangements that the President, who not only had planned for the medal, but had given himself to every detail of the quarter-centennial meeting, should receive at the hands of his associates a Conference medal struck in gold. Soon after the adjournment of the session, therefore, Mr. Stewart was waited upon by a committee representing the National Conference and the Committee of One Hundred, and the presentation was made.

In adapting the obverse of the medal to its use as an official seal, the name of the American Numismatic and Archæological Society has been replaced by the words: "Charity and Correction united to uplift Humanity." This motto is a modification in the interest of brevity of an expression used by Mr. Alexander Johnson, President of the Twenty-fourth Conference, namely: "Charity and Correction are the two sides of one great cause,— the uplifting of humanity." The abbreviation was suggested by Mrs. Charles R. Henderson, the wife of the President of the Twenty-sixth Conference.

WALTER S. UFFORD,

Local Secretary, Committee of One Hundred.

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I.

President's Address.

THE DUTY OF THE STATE TO THE ERRING AND THE DEPENDENT.

BY WILLIAM RHINELANDER STEWART,

PRESIDENT NEW YORK STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

The Constitution of the United States does not contain the word "charity." The national government makes statutory provision for Indians on their reservations, for destitute veterans by pensions, and for the dependent of the District of Columbia; but, with these exceptions, the duty of making public provision for the dependent in general is relegated to the States. The recognition of this duty is as old as history. Every nation, on emerging from barbarism into civilization, has in some way acknowledged the obligation to distribute relief from the common store to the poor, the sick, and the unfortunate.

Assuming, therefore, that the State as a political entity owes a duty to the dependent and to the erring also, when and how should this duty be admitted? To what classes should State relief be directly extended? What others may with safety be left to county, municipal, and private care? Should State authority supervise all charitable administration, not only public but private? If so, how far should this supervision extend, and by whom should it be exercised? These are some of the leading questions that would seem to invite consideration at a gathering like this.

The beginning of public or private charitable work in any new community is seldom organized. House to house relief is extended, the wayfarers are sheltered and fed, the sick visited and cared for. With the growth of villages, towns, and cities, their residents are obliged to unite to make public or private provision of an organized

kind for the sick and the unfortunate, in order that the burden of their support may be more wisely distributed and better results achieved. Thus county, city, or town almshouses, hospitals, asylums, and the like, in turn take their place in a system of charitable administration.

Later, as communities grow larger and in a sense more prosperous, originate the hospital, orphan asylum, home for the aged, general relief societies, and kindred charitable organizations under private management.

Into the public institutions, and, indeed, into some of the private ones, find admission, from time to time, insane persons, feeble-minded, idiots, epileptics, and the deformed, for whom no separate asylum has been provided, and who become a source of disturbance to the inmates for whose care these institutions were opened, while the unfortunates themselves are condemned to needless suffering for want of the special care and attention their condition requires. Hence arises an intelligent demand for State care for the insane, the criminal, the idiot, and for other unfortunates.

The organic law of every State should explicitly acknowledge the obligation of its people to make provision for the destitute insane, idiotic, feeble-minded, deformed, and epileptic, and the delinquent or criminal. The State owes no higher duty than the protection of its citizenship from the dangers and pollution incidental to the unrestrained commingling of these defectives with the people generally; nor is there a greater evil than the increase of their kind. Wise public policy requires that for these unfortunates uniform and suitable custodial care or restraint should be provided by the State. The destitute blind and deaf, whose education, by reason of their deprivation of a sense, is rendered difficult and expensive, should also be maintained and educated by the State, in order that they may, by early training and instruction, become self-supporting and intelligent citizens.

There should be no delay until abuses in private, municipal, or county administration, enforce the extension of State care. Before the need has arisen, the duty should be acknowledged and the promise given that the State will assume the care of all the classes of unfortunate or defective people named whose relations are unable to make suitable provision for them.

By the Revised Constitution, adopted in 1894, the State of New

York, for the first time, assumed in the fundamental law the duty of State supervision for the defective and destitute, insane and criminal, by directing the legislature to provide for State boards or commissions of charities, lunacy, and prisons, to visit and inspect all institutions for the dependants, or delinquents in the State. Subsequent legislation, enacted pursuant to the authority of the constitution, further provided that all county, municipal, and private charities should be subject to the supervision of the State Board of Charities. For many years previous, State care had been generously extended to the insane, idiots, feeble-minded, and other unfortunates, while for the juvenile or older offenders and more hardened criminals State reformatories and prisons were established when required.

By more recent legislation the State of New York has also made provision for destitute veterans in homes at Bath and Oxford, for Indian children at the Thomas Asylum at Versailles, and for epileptics on a farm known as "Craig Colony," so named in recognition of the public services to humanity of the late Oscar Craig, of Rochester, formerly president of the New York State Board of Charities, and Vice-President of the Seventeenth National Conference of Charities and Correction. This colony was established in 1894, and is the only one of its kind in the United States. In passing, a tribute should be paid to Ohio, the first State to undertake the care and treatment of epileptics in an asylum founded exclusively for the reception of persons afflicted with this mysterious disease, opened in 1893. Massachusetts, California, and New Jersey have since taken steps in the same direction.

While, therefore, advanced ground has recently been taken by the State of New York on the subject of State care for the dependent classes, it as yet only inferentially recognizes this duty, by the direction to the legislature to make provision for the three supervisory boards named. That the consideration of this constitutional obligation is important may be demonstrated by the fact that in no State Constitution is the obligation of the State to provide for the dependent clearly admitted, except in that of North Carolina, which, by Article XI., Section 7, declares, "Beneficent provision for the poor, "the unfortunate, and orphan, being one of the first duties of a civil-"ized and Christian State, the General Assembly shall, at its first "session, appoint and define the duties of a Board of Public Chari-

"ties, to whom shall be intrusted the supervision of all charitable "and penal institutions, and who shall annually report to the gov- "ernor upon their condition, with suggestions of their improvement." All honor to North Carolina, who has pointed out this duty to her sister States!

The Constitution of Nebraska, by Section 19, provides that "the "commissioner of public lands and buildings, the secretary of State, "treasurer, and attorney-general shall form a board, which shall have "general supervision and control of all the buildings, grounds, and "lands of the State, the State prison, asylums and all other institu- "tions thereof, except those for educational purposes; and shall per- "form such duties and be subject to such rules and regulations as "may be prescribed by law."

The Constitution of South Dakota, by Article XIV., Section 1, declares what the charitable and penal institutions shall consist of, and by Section 2 directs that: "the State institutions provided for in the preceding section shall be under the control of a State Board of Charities and Corrections, under such rules and restrictions as the legislature shall provide; such board to consist of not to exceed five members, to be appointed by the governor and confirmed by the Senate, and whose compensation shall be fixed by law."

The Constitution of Wyoming, in Sections 18 and 19, provides, under the caption Charitable and Penal Institutions: "Such chari- "table, reformatory, and penal institutions as the claims of human- "ity and the public good may require shall be established and sup- "ported by the State in such manner as the legislature may prescribe. "They shall be under the general supervision of the State Board of "Charities and Reform, whose duties and powers shall be prescribed "by law." "The property of all charitable and penal institutions be- "longing to the Territory of Wyoming shall, upon the adoption of "this constitution, become the property of the State of Wyoming, and "such of said institutions as are then in actual operation shall there- "after have the supervision of the Board of Charities and Reform, as "provided in the last preceding section of this article, under provi- "sions of the legislature."

No State has reasonably fulfilled its duty to the dependent, which has not only acknowledged this duty in the organic law, but has also established, in such law, supervising commissions of charities, prisons, and, if need be, of lunacy. Adequate State supervision

should be thus provided for, and removed from the uncertainties of legislative action. Only the five States already named have taken this step. Sixteen other States have by statute established supervisory boards under various titles. Twenty-four States, among them several of our oldest and most populous, have as yet intrusted a commission to no Board to see that their wards are suitably cared for and protected. The number establishing commissions is, however, increasing; and the hope is expressed that the thirtieth assemblage of this body will be participated in by delegates of State Boards from every State.

This statement leads to an inquiry as to the condition of the wards of those States not yet exercising State supervision. Who can answer for them? The delegates from these States should give earnest and early consideration to this important subject with the assurance that every member of the Conference will render all the assistance within his power to perfect a suitable supervisory system within them.

The power of appointment of such State Boards should be conferred upon the governor. The usual safeguard against improper appointments is confirmation of the nomination by the Senate. Long terms of office are desirable to secure a continuing policy, resulting from experience. In the State of New York the term of office of the Charities and Prison Commissions is eight years and of the Lunacy Commission six years, and reappointment of useful members, irrespective of political considerations, has been usual. Whatever allowance may be made for the exigencies of politics, party preferences ought not to control appointments to commissions charged with the protection of the wards of the State. Such appointments are crimes against the people, as under them the best conditions of care and reformation cannot be obtained; and, in an enlightened condition of public opinion, they would be visited with general condemnation.

If a board of three is contemplated, a lawyer, a physician, and a business man might well be selected, since these could bring to the service of the State, and to the oversight of its dependants, the special sorts of knowledge proper to their several fields of activity. This principle of selection could be wisely followed in any enlargement of the membership of such a board. Supervision over all the charitable and correctional institutions of a State, the population of which

does not exceed one million, can be maintained by a single commission of from three to five members; but the proper supervision of the dependants of States whose people number several millions, and the inevitable tendency to specialization, would doubtless require the establishment of separate commissions of charities, lunacy, and prisons, as is the case in the State of New York. Large boards are unwieldy, and their members are apt to lose in influence in proportion to their numerical increase. Boards of from three to seven members should be large enough for all reasonable purposes. Whenever possible, the geographical sections of the State, as well as the different religious creeds of its citizens, should be fairly represented in the membership. Any other principle of formation would give occasion for complaint.

Examination of the composition of twenty-one State Boards of Charities, now established under different names, shows them to vary in number from four to twelve. The average number of members is six; and the largest, that of the New York State Board of Charities, has twelve members, in addition to Constitutional Commissions of Prisons with eight members, and of Lunacy with three, — a total of twenty-three State officers charged with the supervision of the dependent and the delinquent. The two commissions first named are practically unpaid, and the latter is salaried. With exceptions for special needs, it would seem advisable that these boards should not receive compensation for their services.

In the formation of any State Board, or Commission, of Charities or Correction or of Prisons, or by whatever name designated, the public interest would be well served by the appointment of citizens who have already gained the public confidence by the successful management of some private charitable enterprise. These, having won their spurs on the field of battle against misery and crime, are entitled to be chosen for leadership. Such appointments are essentially practical, for the State and its wards would be immediately benefited by experience already gained along the same lines of work. They would also bring to the support of the State, through a board so constituted, the army of those unselfishly interested in the administration or management of private charities. The churches, philanthropists, and the press generally, sympathizing with the policy of such a board, would lend their influence in aid of the reforms inaugurated by it; and thus its powers and opportunities for good would be vastly increased.

Visitation and inspection, by such commissioners only, would be welcomed and cheerfully acquiesced in, by all honest people engaged in charitable work; and the friction frequently resulting from unwise official action, by those intrusted with authority from other motive than fitness for it, would be obviated.

The duties of these supervisory boards will bring them frequently into touch with the executive, the State officers, and the legislature, with all of whom cordial relations are most desirable. Conscientious and prompt performance of every duty will be rewarded by the respect and confidence of the executive, who will naturally turn for information and suggestion, in all matters relating to the management and expenditures of State institutions, to the boards charged by the State with the responsibility of their supervision.

Systematic inspections will at all times make possible a report to the legislature upon the general conditions and specific financial needs of each State institution. This is one of the most important duties of such boards. Recommendations for appropriations should be re-enforced by advocacy of them before the finance committees of the legislature and the governor. In regard to appropriations, the attitude would probably be intermediary between the law-making power of the State, desiring to secure a low tax rate, and the frequently extravagant demands of the managers of the institutions.

The relations with the State Comptroller are necessarily intimate, and should be harmonious. While the boards ought to have power to examine the books and accounts of all charitable or correctional institutions, public or private, and to make recommendations based thereon, the State Comptroller is the responsible financial officer of the State; and care should be exercised to avoid any encroachment upon his prerogatives. On the other hand, representations to him of the needs of institutions under his financial control should meet with his favorable response to the limits of his authority. Legal questions will, from time to time, necessitate the provision of counsel; and the designation by statute of the attorney-general to act as such is desirable. With his assistance, through the operation of the courts, compliance with the constitutional and statutory requirements of these boards may be enforced.

A natural expression of the civilization of our times is the foundation of private charitable institutions, societies, or associations. Their variety is restricted only by the number of human needs ap-

parent, and includes many for the relief, even, of suffering animals. The people of the United States are said to devote more of their means for charitable objects than those of any other nation.

However bountiful public provision for the dependent may be, the larger number will find relief mainly from private benevolence. The luxury of generous giving is indulged in by wealthy citizens who may be justified in an expenditure which would be improper, if made from public taxation. The attitude of the State to these private foundations should be that of encouragement and friendly interest. Public policy requires that State supervision should be maintained over all charitable organizations, whether public or private: but this should be so exercised as to raise the standards of discipline and care in the institutions, to aid them in every way to obtain the support of public opinion, and to protect them from ignorant or malicious attack. By the careful and periodical publication of statistical and general information concerning their objects and management, continual streams of revenue, from private sources, might be induced to flow to the most useful and worthy.

Attention would be directed, by the general distribution of tables prepared for the purpose, to the needs of certain communities for some particular kind of charitable relief. In the State of New York, such tables show that homes for the aged are greatly needed, and, for want of sufficient accommodation in these, many respectable persons must seek the shelter of the almshouses: on the other hand orphan asylums, children's homes, and dispensaries exist in advance of legitimate demand for them, and are to that extent pauperizing and demoralizing.

Two fundamental principles may be emphasized in conclusion. First: That it is the duty of the State to regard as its wards all citizens belonging to the classes called dependent or delinquent. This does not imply State maintenance for all, since many will be relieved, or reformed, through other public or by private charity. It does imply, however, that, wherever within the borders of the State the dependent and delinquent exist, the protection of the State should follow and cover them. Second: That it is also the duty of the State to see that the contributions of its citizens for charitable objects are honestly expended for the purposes for which they were made.

The acceptance of these principles by any State will lead inevitably

to the bestowal of such powers as have been here outlined to some State commission, to guard against the abuse of the individual dependent or the misuse of charitable funds. The extent of the subject of our consideration may be illustrated by the fact that the dependants and delinquents in the public and private charitable or correctional institutions of the State of New York during the year 1897 numbered over 100,000, or 1 in every 70 of the population; and the expenditure for their care reached the enormous sum of more than $25,000,000, without taking into account contributions for charitable purposes made by churches, through newspaper subscriptions, and other agencies not reporting their receipts to any State authority.

Provided that the successive precautions herein outlined shall have been taken in establishing such commissions, they may be safely made the custodians of ample powers. To be properly efficient, they should not only have the right to visit, inspect, and supervise, but also hold in reserve veto powers over public institutions, or those in receipt of public money, in order that economy, reasonable uniformity, and other desirable conditions may prevail. The power to limit within proper bounds the incorporation of new charitable institutions should also be conferred.

On the other hand, managers and officers of charitable institutions should possess, subject to this general authority, considerable latitude and power of their own, which should only be interfered with, when necessary for the public good. Conflicting views are held by many who are well informed as to the powers to be given to or withheld from such State boards or commissions. The subject is not an easy one, and might be extended to a large and interesting volume. It can here be dealt with only in a general way.

These observations are submitted with diffidence to a body which from the small beginning of twenty-five years ago has increased in membership and influence, until it now takes rank among the most influential sociological organizations of our times. You are accustomed to be addressed by your presiding officer in loftier language and a more eloquent strain; and to many present, especially to those from our own State, the points which have been here emphasized may seem commonplace. Every man has his limitations, and to every man is given his opportunity. The unexpected honor conferred by my election at the Twenty-fourth Conference to preside

over the sessions of the Twenty-fifth is availed of in simple fashion, in the hope that, through your influence in the communities from which you have come and the record of the proceedings of this Conference, some seed-truths relating to subjects of vital interest to our national welfare, which we have considered together, may strike root and bear fruit in parts of our land in which no duty is publicly acknowledged by the State to its dependants, and where State supervision of them is a thing unknown.

II.

Conference Sermon.

THE THEOCRATIC REPUBLIC.

BY WILLIAM REED HUNTINGTON, D.D., RECTOR OF GRACE CHURCH.

"My son, keep thy father's commandment; and forsake not the law of thy mother."— PROV. vi. 20.

In a later chapter of this same book it is written of the virtuous woman that "in her tongue is the law of kindness." Bringing this to bear upon the teaching of the text, we may, I think, safely infer that "the law of the mother" stands for mercy, even as "the commandment of the father" stands for discipline. "Charities" and "Correction," therefore, seem both of them to look out at us from this ancient exhortation, and, since we have met to confer together with regard to "Charities and Correction," what text is there in all the Bible that could better serve our purpose? Moreover, seeing that this is a National, and not a merely local Conference, we shall be justified in giving to the words a more than personal significance. God was wont of old to speak to Israel, his people, in this affectionate, confiding strain as his "dear son," his "pleasant child." What forbids, then, that we Americans, whose lot has fallen in a time when every nation may, if it will, accept the filial *status*,— what forbids that we Americans should hear God, out of his heaven of heavens, saying to us as a people, a great commonwealth of souls, "My son, keep thy father's commandment, and forsake not the law of thy mother"?

I make a plea — forgive me if it should pass into an argument — for a generous recognition in our public and civil life of what conscience and the heart demand of men. "My song shall be of mercy and judgment."

Doubtless the metaphor which gives to nations personality, speaking of them under such names as "Columbia," "Britannia," and

the like, may be overworked; but it is better to overwork it than to lose sight of the invaluable grain of truth and fact which it enfolds. A nation, even though it have not all the traits and features of a person, certainly has some of them. For a nation, as for a man, selfishness and unselfishness, justice and injustice, clemency and cruelty, are possible alternatives. A nation may love another nation or may hate it, may treat a sister fairly or unfairly, may cherish a high ideal, or may deliberately turn its back upon some heavenly vision. In all these points the way of a nation is as the way of a man.

And yet, curiously enough, there is nothing of which a people needs to be more frequently or more urgently reminded than this very thing. We lazily consent that the ship of state shall drift as the currents of commercial advantage may determine, when the national conscience ought rather to be steadily attent upon the needle-point of duty, and the national will strenuous in its grasp upon the wheel. "After all, she is but a merchant ship," we say, "why worry? Any winds that can be called trade-winds ought to be good enough for us." That is the doctrine which the utilitarians have been preaching to us for the better part of a century. But, thank God, there are some left who disbelieve it, some who still hold that the nations have callings which it is blessedness to see and ignominy to miss, some who refuse to be persuaded that for a people, any more than for a person, it is possible to live "by bread only."

"Spain," wrote a wrong-headed or else grossly misinformed Frenchman a few days ago, "Spain is a nation. The United States are only a syndicate." Were that indictment sound, we Americans might well hang our heads for shame. The syndicate can never become a substitute for the State. The syndicate is a mechanism, a skilled contrivance made of pieces glued together for a temporary purpose; but a nation is a growth. "As the days of a tree are the days of my people." For a syndicate, it is enough if the prices current hold their own; but a nation withers and fails when its ideals die. National prosperity does, it is true, rest upon a contract; but the contract is none other than that ancient and sacred covenant in which the party of the first part promises his blessing, and the party of the second part his allegiance.

It is said that the *per capita* consumption of iron is larger in this country than anywhere else in the world, and that the *per capita*

consumption of iron is everywhere the index-finger of civilization. But what was Almighty God expecting of us Americans, when he cast our lot in a land whose stones are iron? Had he no better purpose, think you, than the accumulation of statistical wonders? Had he in mind only the multiplication of flouring-mills and rolling-mills, of machine-reapers and electric engines? I do not deny that these things were in the creative thought; I do not question their having formed part of the providential purpose; but with the whole strength of a Christian's conviction I do refuse to them the foremost place in that thought and in that purpose. What! are we to imagine that the God who formed the soul, who made man, can find his satisfaction in coal-beds and rivers of oil? Nay: depend upon it, his real purpose lies far back of all these outward forms and shows of things. Nothing is so substantial as spirit. No interests are so dear to God as the interests of truth and righteousness. For these he plans, for these he legislates, that he might save these, he sent his Son into the world to die.

It is with a nation as it is with a family. It does not matter how luxuriously you wall it in and roof it over; unless the life of the family thus enclosed is what it ought to be, home there is none; a house,—yes, but not a home. I am not declaiming against civic magnificence. We have not half enough of it. We shall do well to make our civilization as splendid as you will. God has given us without stint the means of doing so. He has withheld no necessary thing. He has lavished upon us all his treasures, and put in our way the grandest opportunity ever vouchsafed to man. By all means, then, let us make our civilization splendid; but, first of all, let us take care that discipline and brotherly love, the father's commandment and the mother's law, have place in it.

It is ten times more important that we should remember points like these than that we should "remember the Maine." They are guilty of a perversion of Kipling's famous refrain, "Lest we forget, lest we forget," who turn it into a formula of vengeance. The thought of the precariousness of the tenure by which empires that have suffered themselves to become exclusively commercial hold the thread of life is the true keynote of the "Recessional."

> "Far-called, our navies melt away,
> On dune and headland sinks the fire.
> Lo, all our pomp of yesterday
> Is one with Nineveh and Tyre!"

It was the subtle quaver of melancholy lurking in those four lines that drove the poem home to every heart in Greater Britain.

The Assyrian civilization, in its day, was splendid. It was a cruel civilization, and it fell. The Egyptian civilization was splendid. It was a superstitious civilization, and it fell. The Greek civilization was splendid. It was a self-centred civilization, and it fell. The Roman civilization was splendid. It became a pampered civilization, and it fell. And what of the American civilization now in its beginnings? What of this latest of all the "births of time," — what of this?

Can it be, as our critic affirms, only the product of a "syndicate," nothing better than a commercial venture, a moneyed enterprise, a speculative scheme?

This National Conference of Charities and Correction is itself an answer in the negative. You represent in your own persons a vast army of men and women who throughout the length and breadth of the Republic are laboring, the most of them at their own charges, for the betterment of the common weal.

In you and in the tens of thousands next of kin to you, quite as really as in the persons of the great officers of state, we discern the credentials of a true nationality. John the Baptist, in a moment of despondency, demanded better evidence than had yet been given him of the genuineness of Christ's claim to the Messiahship. Jesus met the messengers who had brought John's question with an argument from which there was no escape; for "in that same hour," so the record runs, "he cured many of their infirmities and plagues and of evil spirits, and to many that were blind he gave sight." This closed the case. No more testimony was needed. No more witnesses were called. "Go your way, and tell John," said Jesus, "what things ye have seen and heard." It is upon a like array of witnesses we count, and count with confidence, when asked for proof that our claim to a true nationality is valid. The truth is that within our visible body politic, wrapped up and hidden there, very much as the Psyche is enfolded within the larva, there lives a spiritual body politic, whose chief concern is with those interests of human life which transcend commercial lines completely. He who would really understand and do justice to American nationality must get down beneath the outward and visible political integument, and study the movement and direction of the life-currents below.

As a people, we have disestablished the Church; but, so far from having disestablished the works of mercy which were once, if I may so speak, the specialty of the Church, we have practically endowed them for all time.

There has happened on a large scale in America, with reference to many kinds of beneficence, what often occurs in a small way, and in connection with some single good work, in a detached city or town. A church or a synagogue, we will suppose, zealous in behalf of the better instruction of the young, starts on its own account a manual-labor school or a cooking-school or a sewing-school, in the hope that, by illustrating in this practical way the value of such teaching, it may sooner or later succeed in persuading the town itself, in its corporate capacity, to sanction and adopt the device. Trace back our educational legislation, our reformatory legislation, our charity legislation, to their real source, and you will find yourself standing, before you know it, with one foot across the threshold of the Church. It is significantly written that the blind and the lame came to Jesus "in the temple" to be healed; yes, and it was that very temple where, as a child, he had excused himself for lingering, on the plea that he must be about his Father's business.

That business was a business of which the ancient State knew nothing or next to nothing. That the modern State has accepted so generally the honorable task of attending to it is one of the most signal illustrations of the persuasiveness of the cross. The heathen State was coercive, punitive; it was a terror to evil doers, but it made no effort to win them to a better life. It had no scruple about sending out its decrees that all the world should be taxed; but it would not lift so much as a finger to ease the heavy burdens of the poor. What would a Roman senator, of the year of our Lord one, have said to a proposition to educate all the children of the Empire at the public cost, or to provide homes for the blind, colonies for the epileptic, retreats for the insane?

The propositions which your Conference of Charities and Correction holds to be self-evident, at least practically indisputable, he, the senator, would have accounted not merely fallacious, but pestilent. So much in nineteen centuries has the State gathered from the Church! You do well and wisely to devote one evening of your annual reunion to worship within consecrated walls; for it is to the Church, using the word in that large sense which makes it inclusive

of Judaism before our era as well as of Christianity since,— it is to the Church of God philanthropy goes back to find a birthday and a cradle. Moses legislated for the poor, the prophets were their friends, Christ welcomed them to his kingdom and made them sharers of his throne.

But, while this lifting of a burden off from the shoulders of the Church and devolving it, by law, upon the community as a whole, is a step forward, in so far as it not only frees the Church, to a great extent, from the task of "serving tables," and sets it free to give itself "wholly to the word of God and to prayer," but also reads like a glad prophecy of the day when in all respects, as well as in this single one respect, the kingdom of God shall come; there is yet a danger to be feared. Knowing what human nature is, even in Christian countries, we shall do well always to be awake to the peril of a cold, hard, and perfunctory doing of our duty toward the criminal, the orphaned, and the destitute. It will be little to the State's credit if, after having said to the Church: "Go to! Let me henceforth be almoner and hospital steward, and go thou and pray yonder!" it should be found discharging the functions of these sacred posts in a loveless way, and more in the spirit of Judas, the economist, than of those better-minded disciples who helped Jesus in the distribution of the loaves. And here, again, the Church's responsibility comes in; for who shall warm the State, at such hours of chill collapse, into a better, healthier condition unless she, the Church, lift up her voice, and plead? It is all very well to talk about the absolute and complete severance of religion and the State; but the thing is not possible, least of all possible in a republic, which must, by an irresistible fatality, sink into a "syndicate" the moment the high promptings of the Spirit are disowned.

Churches can be disestablished and disendowed, ecclesiastical hierarchies can be outlawed and overthrown; but not until the father's commandment shall have been rescinded and the mother's law annulled can present-day nations of the sort that make up Christendom repudiate religion, and survive.

Of the famous worthies who in our day have clearly discerned this truth, and through evil report and good report have clung to it, there has been none greater than the statesman the number of whose many years the bell of Hawarden church tolled out on the morning of Ascension Day.

By an interesting coincidence, which future historians will not fail to note, it was in the same little Welsh village that within the short space of two years a great archbishop and a great prime minister came to their deaths. Benson breathed his last before the altar, Gladstone in the castle,— the altar, one where the statesman was no stranger, the castle, one where the prelate had ever been a welcome guest. That the head of the Church and the head of the State should within so brief a space of time have been identified in their deaths with one spot seems strikingly significant.

For with Gladstone, from his early days at Oxford down to those latest ones spent in dignified retirement among his books, no subject had such engrossing interest as the one which you and I, moved thereto by the proprieties of the occasion, have been pondering together here to-night. "The State in its Relations with the Church" furnished the title for his earliest book, the State in its relations with the Church supplied the field for no small portion of his political activity, destructive as well as constructive, and to the State in its relation with the Church the ripest thought of his old age was given. Many of his opinions in the course of his long career he had the courage to change; for, as his friend the laureate has it,

> "We all are changed by still degrees;
> All but the basis of the soul."

But by one tenet he abode from the beginning to the end,— abode, because it was, indeed, with him, part of that same "basis of the soul." At eighty-eight, as firmly as at one-and-twenty, he believed with all the strength of his great heart that to fear God and to keep his commandments is as truly a necessity for nations as it clearly is the whole duty of man! Rest, then, O sufferer,

> "passed through anguish mortal;
> Rest, then, O saint, sublimely free from doubt;
> Rest, then, O patient thinker, o'er the portal
> Where there is peace for brave hearts wearied out."

III.

Reports from States.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON REPORTS FROM STATES.

Your Committee on Reports from States has received forty reports out of a possible fifty-two. Most of the delinquents are in States and Territories that have little to report, only four being rich and populous States having important institutions.

The reports are of unusually good quality. For example, the reports of Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Maryland, Ohio, Indiana, Wisconsin, Idaho, Louisiana, and Ontario, are models of concise statements of progress.

State boards of charities have been established during the year in Louisiana, Iowa, and Washington. The Louisiana Board is provided for in the new State constitution. The Iowa and Washington Boards are State boards of control, as well as boards of charities. The Iowa Board will manage the Normal School and the State University, as well as the charitable institutions.

There are now sixteen State conferences of charities, besides the Southern Conference and the Canadian Conference, both of which have formed preliminary organizations. Two new conferences were organized during the year in Iowa and Maryland; and State conferences are proposed in New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and New Jersey. The State conferences are improving from year to year in the quality of their work and in the consequent interest taken in them. They are marked by fewer and shorter papers and more free discussion. More attention is paid to the needs of people living in smaller communities and managing small societies and institutions.

Although this is the "off year" in many States where biennial sessions of the legislature are held, considerable important legislation is reported.

SUMMARY BY SECTIONS.

In accordance with the plan inaugurated last year on suggestion of Mr. F. B. Sanborn, we present a brief summary of the State reports by geographical sections.

The North Atlantic States.

State Boards.— In Massachusetts the State Board of Lunacy and Charity will undoubtedly be made a State board of charity only, its functions as a board of lunacy being assigned to a new "board of insanity." In New Hampshire the State Board of Charities was cordially indorsed by the last legislature.

The Insane.— The trend in the North Atlantic States is in the direction of State boards of lunacy. New York and Pennsylvania already have such boards. The "State Board of Insanity" which has been established in Massachusetts will consist of five persons, two of whom must be "experts" in insanity. The board is to have general supervision of all public and private institutions for the insane and feeble-minded, and is to act as a commission in insanity, with powers of discharge and transfer. Building plans must have its approval. Connecticut is considering the question of building another State hospital. In New Hampshire the federation of women's clubs has taken up the matter of the care of the indigent insane, and is moving actively for a reformation.

Epileptics.— The Massachusetts State Hospital for Epileptics has just been opened, but it can provide for only about half of the epileptics now in institutions for insane. The law provides for voluntary commitment of epileptics during treatment. The New Jersey legislature appropriated $10,000 toward establishing an epileptic colony.

Dependent Children.— Connecticut is trying the plan of boarding-out children in families instead of enlarging the New Haven County Home, with satisfactory results. In New Jersey a State commission has made an elaborate report on the care of dependent children, and has recommended a "State board of children's guardians to maintain a general supervision over all children adjudged public charges because of destitution," with county branches of the State

board which may appoint agents and may place children in private families, with or without payment of board, or may commit them to institutions maintained by counties for not exceeding nine months. Children over one year of age cannot remain in almshouses more than thirty days. A bill containing these provisions failed to pass, but is expected to pass the next legislature. The New York legislature passed a law providing that "unincorporated societies, societies incorporated in other States, and individuals wishing to engage in placing-out work must first secure a license from the State Board of Charities." The law gives the State Board the right of visitation of such children. In New Hampshire the number of dependent children in institutions is decreasing in consequence of the increased number placed in family homes.

Penology.— Connecticut has provided a ward for seventy insane criminals in the State prison at Wethersfield, with sixty single rooms, special wards for excited and suicidal cases, sitting-rooms, workshop, etc. The grading system and the Bertillon system of identification are used in the prison. In New Jersey the State Reformatory at Rahway is at a standstill for want of funds, the legislature having failed to make appropriations. Thus far $180,000 have been expended.

Pauperism.— In the city of New York (old New York) about $1,000,000 has been expended in the improvement of buildings in the department of public charities, relieving the overcrowding. The Charity Organization Society, with the co-operation of the various relief societies, has taken up the matter of providing fuel to needy families. The result shows the ability of private societies to meet this form of need.

The Southern States.

State Boards.— The joint select committee of Congress, after investigations continuing for nearly two years, recommended the appointment of a board of charities for the District of Columbia, to consist of five residents of the District, to visit and inspect institutions and to prescribe rules for the government of all institutions aided from public funds. This board would supersede the superintendent of charities. A bill creating such a board is before the Senate, and is supported by the superintendent of charities, the

board of trade, and various civic societies; and its passage is considered probable. In Louisiana the State Constitutional Convention adopted an ordinance for the establishment of a State board of charities and corrections. In Maryland indications point to the early creation of a State board of charities. In Tennessee the State Board of Charities is crippled by the refusal of the legislature to provide for its expenses. The Tennessee State Board has appointed county boards of visitors in many counties.

The Insane.— Maryland has about 900 insane in almshouses, "whose care, in most cases, is subject to the whims of political appointees, and whose nursing is mainly done by fellow-paupers, called by courtesy 'of sound mind.'"

Virginia has about 100 insane persons in the various jails of the State. These patients have accumulated during the past two years. The Virginia legislature has reduced appropriations for care of the insane, so that many patients must be refused by the State hospitals.

Epileptics.— In Virginia the State Epileptic Commission, appointed in 1896, reported recommending a colony on the plan of the Craig Colony in New York. The report was favorably received by the legislature, and plans and estimates will be submitted to the legislature of 1900.

Dependent Children.— None of the Southern States reports State provision for the care of dependent children. Orphanages and children's homes are mentioned by the Masons, the Odd Fellows, the Hebrews, and other benevolent organizations. The Children's Home Society works in Kentucky, Tennessee, and West Virginia. In Maryland the new Baltimore City charter provides for the placing of destitute children "in institutions or in free homes in the State," and for their proper supervision.

Penology.— North Carolina reports, "No case of lynching during the year." The reports show a strong trend of public sentiment against the "lease system." Apparently, it has been abolished in North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, and Texas, the convicts being worked largely on State farms. In Tennessee the Corresponding Secretary reports: "We again have the convict lease system, although in a modified form. Convicts may be leased to manufacturers, but the work must be done inside the prison walls." (Apparently, this is what is known in the North as the "contract system.") In Louisiana the Prison Reform Association, organized as a result

of the Conference of Charities held in New Orleans in March, 1897, has done noble work, one item of which is an ordinance in the new State constitution providing for the abolition of the convict lease system. The new Tennessee Penitentiary just completed is described as an "up-to-date prison." In Tennessee seventy-six county jails are not fire-proof; and a law has just been enacted, requiring jailers to sleep in the jails, in consequence of the cremation of three prisoners in the Stewart County jail. Prison Sunday was observed in Tennessee, last October, for the first time. Night schools have been established for Tennessee convicts. In Texas there is a movement to establish a prison association, due, probably, to the recent meeting of the National Prison Association in Austin, Tex.

Attention is called to the very graphic statement of the working of the convict lease system compared with State account in the Louisiana report, which shows the following death-rate of convicts per thousand: Louisiana under the lease system, 110; Mississippi, 85; Texas, 22; Alabama, 83; Tennessee, 35; Virginia, 75.

All of these States except Louisiana are under the State account system, but the death-rate is excessive for all except Texas.

Pauperism.— In both Baltimore and Washington the public authorities have urged the giving of relief through voluntary agencies in lieu of the distribution through the police, which formerly prevailed. In Baltimore the Charity Organization Society and the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor have unified their districts, and have come into cordial co-operation "on sound principles." The new charter of the city of Baltimore recognizes the right of the municipality to supervise and require reports from all private institutions receiving public money. An unpaid board of nine "supervisors of city charities" will exercise these powers. During February and March, 1898, the general secretary of the Baltimore Charity Organization Society gave a course of eight lectures on "Charitable Work in the Homes of the Poor." There was a large attendance by representatives of over twenty charitable societies.

North Central States.

State Boards.— The Iowa legislature of 1898 established a State Board of Control, which is to administer not only the State correctional and charitable institutions, but the State University and the Normal Schools as well. The board has no supervision over county or city institutions. The powers of the Ohio Board of State Charities have been enlarged, so that plans for State, county, and municipal institutions must have the approval of the board. Heretofore plans for county institutions only have been submitted, and the approval of the board has not been necessary. All persons administering public relief, including township trustees, are now brought under the jurisdiction of the board, and report to it.

The Insane.— Indiana has 392 insane patients in county poor asylums (almshouses). Iowa has many insane in local county asylums, but is about to open a fourth State hospital. Two of the Iowa State hospitals publish magazines. In Minnesota a strong public sentiment is developing in favor of the Wisconsin county system of caring for the insane. The Wisconsin plan is being carefully investigated both by the State Board of Corrections and Charities and by the board of trustees of the State hospitals for insane. A similar sentiment, though less pronounced, is reported from Illinois. Wisconsin is the only State which reports a falling off in the annual accumulation of the insane. The State Corresponding Secretary says, "For the last ten years the annual average increase of insane in the State has been less than 150, while in the past five years the average accumulation has been only a trifle over 100,— this, too, with a death-rate a trifle less than that given in the statistics of most other States." Ohio will open a new State hospital at Massillon during the present summer, with a capacity of about 1,250 patients. Minnesota has returned about 50 non-resident insane persons to their homes in other States and countries, under the law of 1897.

Dependent Children.— South Dakota and Wisconsin complain of the importation of defective and dependent children from States farther east, and restrictive legislation is threatened. In Indiana the agent of the State Board of Charities has placed 102 children in homes during the past year, under the new law giving the board charge of such children. About 230 children have been removed

from the county poor asylums (poorhouses) under this law, and placed in orphans' homes. "Soldiers' Orphans' Homes" were established, soon after the last war, by Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, and Kansas. Iowa and Minnesota closed their homes many years ago.

The Iowa and Kansas homes have been open to others than soldiers' orphans for some years. There are in Soldiers' Orphans' Homes: in Ohio, about 900; Indiana, 637; Illinois, about 600; Iowa, 490, of whom 300 are soldiers' orphans. Most of these homes are practically public boarding-schools for their inmates, a large portion of whom have homes of their own. The reports from States show that a much larger number of dependent children than formerly are placed in family homes. For example, in Iowa there were placed in homes last year: from the State Orphanage at Davenport, about 75; from the Christian Home at Council Bluffs, 68; by the Children's Home Society, 200,— making a total by these three agencies of 343. The Michigan legislature of 1897 passed a bill which provides that "any parent or guardian or person under whose charge a child may be who tortures, cruelly or unlawfully punishes, or wilfully, unlawfully, or negligently deprives of necessary food, clothing, or shelter, or who wilfully abandons a child under sixteen years of age; . . . or who habitually permits him to frequent public places for the purpose of begging, . . . or by vicious training depraves his morals," shall be guilty of a felony punishable by imprisonment in jail or State prison.

The State Corresponding Secretary for South Dakota reports: "We have no dependent children. The Children's Home Society gathers them as quickly as they come to the surface, and places them in family homes." In Ohio the age to which children may remain in county infirmaries (poorhouses) with their mothers has been reduced from three years to one year. In Wisconsin, by increased activity in securing homes for children, one cottage at the State Public School has been closed; and it is proposed to use it for crippled children, heretofore unprovided for. In Minnesota the new law providing for the treatment and care of deformed and crippled children is reported to be working well.

Epileptics.— In Ohio a law has been passed forbidding the commitment of epileptics to county infirmaries (poorhouses) hereafter. They are to be cared for in the State institution.

The Feeble-minded.— The Ohio legislature has provided for a custodial department in connection with the School for Feeble-minded at Columbus. $70,000 have been appropriated, and 1,000 to 1,500 acres of land will be purchased for this department.

Penology.— In Indiana the "State Prison, South," at Evansville, became the "Indiana Reformary" April 11, 1897. It receives convicts under thirty years of age. In Wisconsin Hon. James E. Heg, president of the Wisconsin State Board of Control, has been appointed superintendent of the new State Reformatory for Young Men, under erection at Green Bay. 2,000 acres of land have been purchased. A cell-room, with a capacity of 100, is under contract. The reformatory will be modelled as much as possible after the Elmira Reformatory, and is expected to have an ultimate capacity of 600 inmates.

Pauperism.— In Indiana and Ohio laws have been passed, levying taxes upon the townships for poor relief given by township authorities. Heretofore township authorities in both States have given relief, drawing upon the county treasury, resulting in extravagance and other abuses. The Ohio poor law has been recodified. The word "pauper" has been eliminated. The obligations of public agencies have been defined. The county infirmary directors are responsible for permanent care at county expense. Township trustees are responsible for temporary relief at township expense. The law provides that township or corporation officers may, in their discretion, accept the investigations of charity organization societies instead of making investigations themselves.

Western States and Territories.

State Boards.— The legislature of Washington passed an act March 7, 1897, establishing a "State Board of Audit and Control," and abolishing the boards of trustees of the State correctional and charitable institutions. The board consists of four unpaid members, and a fifth, known as "the commissioner of public institutions," with a salary of $1,500.

The Insane.— In Arizona the insane hospital "is run on a non-partisan basis." It has 168 patients. California maintains 5,063 patients in five State asylums. It is one of the few States providing for all of their insane in State institutions. Colorado provides for 431 insane; New Mexico, 40; Oregon, 1,140; Utah, 269.

The Feeble-minded.— California is the only Western State which makes provision for the feeble-minded. The home at Eldridge cares for 525.

Epileptics.— California has provided for the establishment of an epileptic colony, to accommodate 500 epileptics. No other Western State has made such provision.

Dependent Children.— A Masonic Home for Widows and Orphans, to cost about $75,000, is under erection in California. The State of California supported last year in private institutions 1,517 orphans, 7,509 half-orphans, 937 abandoned children, 389 foundlings,— total, 10,352,— at a cost to the State of $333,500 (apparently, this includes all children cared for, for a longer or shorter time). Idaho has no institutions for children. The Odd Fellows have projected a home at Idaho Falls. Oregon gives State aid to six institutions for children. Utah has only two institutions for dependent children, containing about 75 children.

Delinquent Children.— The Arizona legislature of 1897 appropriated $17,000 to complete the Reform School at Flagstaff; and a Rescue Home, for women and girls, has been established at Phœnix. In Idaho "youthful offenders have to be tolerated, reprimanded judicially, or committed to the jails or penitentiary." The Utah legislature of 1897 passed a law "for the establishment of parental schools for incorrigible children"; but no schools of this class have yet been reported.

Penology.— The Idaho legislature provided that convicts shall be conducted to the penitentiary by the warden or guards detailed. The Board of Pardons is now authorized to parole prisoners not known to have received a previous sentence for felony, after serving at least one-third of their full term. The Utah legislature passed a law to give convicts a portion of their earnings.

Canada.

The Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction was to meet May 11, 1898.

The secretary of the Prison Association has been investigating institutions for inebriates, on a special commission. He has reported against the adoption of any proprietary or secret remedies, but in favor of medical treatment in penal institutions in conjunction with

an indeterminate sentence; also in favor of the adoption of the probation system for hopeful cases of drunkenness and for other offenders as well.

In these reports two things of special interest to this Conference are noticeable: first, the general trend toward better methods and higher standards; second, the perceptible influence of the National Conference of Charities and Correction and the several State conferences in causing and promoting this trend.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

HASTINGS H. HART,
MARY HALL,
TIMOTHY NICHOLSON,
Committee on Reports from States.

ALABAMA.

BY MISS JULIA S. TUTWILER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature of Alabama meets biennially in the even years. Consequently there has been no important changes since our last Conference. At that time the ten years' lease of the company which had been hiring most of the State convicts was about to expire. Before going to Toronto, I visited our newly elected governor, and asked him whether I might say to the Conference in my report, on his authority, that the State convicts would be leased to no company or individual without the giving of a pledge that, wherever one hundred convicts were leased, night schools for colored and white should be conducted by competent mission teachers. Governor Johnston assured me that I might make this statement with safety. In fulfilment of this promise, five teachers are now at work. These also conduct Sunday-schools and visit the hospitals daily. When certain necessary buildings are ready, the promise will doubtless be fully redeemed by the appointment of the teachers still needed.

There is an unfortunate distinction in this State between county convicts and State convicts. Any person convicted for a crime requiring less than two years' imprisonment is a county convict, and remains under the care of the county. The president of the Board of Convict Inspectors has authority to inspect the condition of these

prisoners also; but, as each county hires them out in any part of the State that it chooses, they are so scattered that thorough supervision is impossible. It is also impossible to provide instruction except for those who have been hired to these lessees, who have also a large number of State convicts. The county convicts are employed by the lessees in various ways,— some in mining, some in saw-mills, and some in ordinary plantation work. The contract with the county is generally only for one year. The price paid is $6.50 per month. The lessees must pay this for all convicts, whether male or female, sick or well. As the proportion of women, children, and old men is very small, this provision is not a serious drawback to the profits of the lessee. He is not required to build a prison; but, if the convict escape or die before the expiration of the time for which he is leased, the lessee must still pay for the whole time.

Now, if these lessees can make money out of this arrangement,— and they would not lease the convicts except for profit,— why cannot some penologist, who wishes to study by the laboratory method, hire from counties some of these petty criminals, place them on a farm in conditions not too different from those to which they have been accustomed, and demonstrate to the State that there is a way to transform these burdens into good and useful citizens? I speak advisedly when I say that land for this experiment will be loaned without expense for any number of years to any responsible person. The houses should be log cabins, such as can be built for twenty-five dollars each, if there is woodland on the farm. In fact, they will cost even less than this if the men build them themselves. A large room for the night school and Sunday services will not cost much. If the experimenter does not design to make money, but only to pay expenses, I think he need not fear failure. All provisions can be made on the farm, besides a crop large enough to pay for the hire of the convicts. If some such simple industry as broom-making could be added, in order to utilize the labor of the men in weather unsuited for farming work, there would be still less danger of a deficit, especially if the materials for the brooms was produced on the farm. There is very little danger that the hands will run away. In order to make this still less, it would be well to follow the French plan, and set aside a small proportion of the earnings of each man, to be given to him at his release. Tickets representing the amount due should be given out at the end of each week. The tickets

should be of different bright colors,— one for the nickel, one for the dime, one for the quarter, and one for the dollar. They should be non-transferable, and redeemable only at the expiration of the sentence. The childish pleasure of stringing them together and hanging them up conspicuously on the cabin wall, and seeing the string grow longer from week to week, would do much to keep the inmates satisfied.

That respect for each other's rights which is essential to good citizenship can be best taught by having them live in small families in separate cabins. If the conditions surrounding them during the time of detention are wholly different from those of their past and future lives, the virtues inculcated during their time of punishment will seem extraneous elements of life, and will probably fall away from them when they leave the tutelage of the lessee; but, if their life is in many respects similar to that which they have always led, with order, cleanliness, and system added, there is hope that the new habits may take firm root and continue to grow.

I will gladly give further information in private to any one who is interested in the subject.

ALASKA.

BY SHELDON JACKSON, D.D., LL.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No means have been provided in Alaska for the care of orphans, old people, deaf and dumb, blind or insane persons. The governor in his report for 1897 says: "If an insane person can be turned into a criminal, he can be taken care of, otherwise not. A number of sad cases have already occurred. The marshal of the district should have a special fund to draw upon, when insane persons come under his care." The bill now pending before Congress provides: "He [the governor] shall, subject to the direction and approval of the Secretary of the Interior, advertise and receive bids, and in behalf of the United States contract from year to year with a responsible asylum or sanatorium west of the main range of the Rocky Mountains submitting the lowest bid for the care and custody of persons legally adjudged insane in said district of Alaska. The cost of advertising for bids, executing the contract, and caring for the insane, to be paid, until otherwise provided by law by the Secretary of the

Treasury, out of any moneys in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, on accounts and vouchers duly approved by said governor and the Secretary of the Interior." The Thlingihs regard an insane person as one possessed of a spirit, and stand in awe of him; and he is not often treated harshly, but is left to do his will so long as he is not dangerous. While these people were addicted to the manufacture of "Hoo-chi-noo," or rum from molasses, many lost their eyesight from its effects. In the Sitka village there are several men totally blind. They are good fishermen, and earn their living for the most part by fishing. Old people are sadly neglected, unless one should be a woman who is high caste, and who has a number of children. Such are well taken care of. Orphan children were formerly made slaves, but the Christian missions have largely done away with this cruelty. The United States jail in Sitka is the principal one for the district. It is located in the lower part of a large blockhouse which was built by the Russians, and which is known as the "Barracks." It is overcrowded by the number of prisoners upon the marshal's hands. The physician in charge has reported that the place is unhealthy and unfit for a prison. The marshal has the care and feeding of the prisoners, and this is so well done that there is no complaint. Prisoners sentenced to imprisonment for a longer term than one year are sent to San Quentin at the expense of the United States. By the present ruling the marshal has no authority to make sentenced prisoners work outside. This defect is sought to be remedied by an amendment to the criminal code, which has been revised by the commission organized for that purpose. The court-house and jail at Juneau burned last winter. Alaska is badly in need of a penitentiary and jails, for a very large class of evildoers are drifting that way.

ARIZONA.

BY DR. IRA B. HAMBLIN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature of a year ago appropriated $17,000 for the completion of the Reform School located at Flagstaff.

A Rescue Home has been established in the city of Phœnix for women and girls; and, since its opening, a great deal of good has been accomplished. At the State Insane Asylum at Phœnix a con-

gregate dining hall is just being completed, which will accommodate about 300 patients, thereby permitting the transformation of the ward dining-rooms into dormitories, thus increasing the capacity of the institution very materially. The asylum is run on a non-partisan basis, the attendants and persons in authority, from the superintendent down, being chosen for their fitness only.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* 200 confined in the Territorial Prison at Yuma.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *The Poor.* Are cared for in county hospitals.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured.* Are cared for in county hospitals.

C. Group of Defectives.

Classes 1 and 2.— *The Blind and Deaf-mutes.* Sent to a blind asylum in an Eastern State, and expense paid by the Territory.

Class 3.— *Feeble-minded Children.* No provision made.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* 168 patients maintained entirely by the Territory in the asylum at Phœnix.

ARKANSAS.

No report received.

CALIFORNIA.

BY MRS. AGNES W. FLINT, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

We have as yet no State Board of Charities and Correction. Our legislature meets biennially, and bills to establish such a board have been repeatedly presented to that body without success, either failing to pass or, as in 1897, not being reached before the adjournment of the legislature. An "Act to authorize, empower, and direct the California Home for the Care and Training of Feeble-minded Children to admit idiots, epileptics, and mentally enfeebled paralytics into said institution," and to provide for the support of all inmates therein, was approved March 31, 1897.

The Masonic order has started building a home for the widows and orphans of Masons, to cost about $75,000. In the city of San Francisco the Associated Charities has established a local conference of charities that is very popular and doing good work in expounding organized charity methods, promoting co-operation, and sending out printed matter pertinent to this subject.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* Are confined in two State prisons at Folsom and San Quentin. The more dangerous class of offenders are confined at Folsom. Number of prisoners during the year, 1,483. Jan. 1, 1898, there were 900 prisoners. At San Quentin the greatest number of prisoners at any one time was 1,358. 1,327 remained in confinement Jan. 1, 1898. Total number for State Jan. 1, 1898, 2,227.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* Information was received from thirty counties only out of fifty-four with regard to this class. These report that 16,263 persons were confined in their various jails and workhouses for minor offences. San Francisco County led with 3,583.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* We have two State Reform Schools, the Preston School of Industry and Whittier. The Preston School is a reformatory for boys only, and had 107 pupils in all. Whittier receives both boys and girls. Its inmates number 245 boys and 45 girls.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *Aged and Infirm Poor* (*Sane*). The aged and infirm poor are maintained by their respective counties in county hospitals, infirmaries, poor-farms, and almshouses. As a rule, they are not maintained separately from the sick and injured poor. 9,582 are reported of these two classes from the thirty counties responding.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* Very few children are kept in almshouses, but they are maintained at State expense in various orphanages. Number supported last year was: orphans, 1,517; half-orphans, 7,509; abandoned children, 937; foundlings, 389. Cost to the State, $333,411.45.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *The Insane.* We have five State insane asylums,— at Napa, Stockton, Agnew, Ukiah, and San Bernardino. In these were confined 5,063 insane patients. An effort is being made to establish a State hospital for insane criminals, heretofore kept with other patients in the insane asylums. The next legislature is to be petitioned urgently to construct a building within the walls of Folsom prison for the care and custody of insane criminals exclusively.

Class 2.— *Idiotic and Feeble-minded Persons.* At the home at Eldridge 525 are cared for. The before-mentioned act approved by our last legislature will allow of the establishment of an epileptic colony or village of from twenty to thirty cottages, wherein will be accommodated some 500 epileptics to be transferred from various asylums of the State.

Class 3.— *The Blind.* Many of this class of defectives are maintained in county infirmaries and almshouses or by outdoor relief. The two State institutions are the Home for Adult Blind in Oakland, having 100 inmates, and the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Asylum at Berkeley, with 67 blind inmates.

Class 4.— *Deaf-mutes.* No separate institution for deaf-mutes is maintained. There are 178 pupils in the home at Berkeley for the deaf, dumb, and blind.

COLORADO.

BY DR. MINNIE C. T. LOVE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no meeting of the legislature.

Victor Woman's Club established a free library; also Cripple Creek Club, a free library and miners' reading-room. Pingree garden work was maintained by Denver Woman's Club, about four hundred families being helped. A cooking school was established by Denver Woman's Club, and kitchen garden work.

Pingree garden work was carried on in Pueblo. A Prisoners' Aid Society was formed through the efforts of the State Board of Charities and Correction.

Dr. Work's Home for Feeble-minded at Pueblo is a private institution, accommodating about 30 patients.

The City Improvement Society are going to equip a playground for poor children, with covered sheds for the mothers, and sand piles, swings, etc., for the children, a matron to watch them.

The Seventh Day Adventists have established a lodging-house in Denver, with eighty-five beds, free meals, and free baths.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* In penitentiary, 617; in reformatory, 95; in jails and lockups, about 200.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* Golden Industrial School for Boys, 113 inmates; Girls' Industrial School at Denver, 50 inmates.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *The Poor.* In Relief Home, 35; poorhouses, about 300.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* In State Home for Dependent Children, 50; in private institutions, about 150.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured.* About 250.

C. Group of Defectives.

Classes 1 and 2.— *The Blind and Deaf-mutes.* In State schools, 133.

Class 3.— *Feeble-minded Children.* No home. Estimated number in State, 150. Dr. Work's private institution cares for a few.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* In hospital, 431; none in jails. Private institutions (Dr. Work's institution at Pueblo), 50.

CONNECTICUT.

BY CHARLES P. KELLOGG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no session of the legislature held during the past year; and no new charitable organizations or institutions have been established within the past year.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1. — *Criminals.* The State prison at Wethersfield has been enlarged by the addition of thirty-two cells in the department for pris-

oners of the first grade, and of six alcoves in the women's department. A new insane ward has also been erected at a cost of $38,000, and has accommodations for about seventy insane criminals. This new department is arranged in accordance with modern ideas for the treatment of the insane. Besides sixty single rooms for the insane criminals, the building includes pleasant sitting-rooms, dining-room, workshop, and special wards for excited and suicidal cases. A considerable number of prisoners in county jails await vacancies at the prison. The system of grading prisoners is in force at the prison, also the Bertillon system of measuring criminals. Increased accommodations for criminals will have to be furnished at an early date, either by the erection of a State reformatory or by an addition to the State prison.

The jails in the eight counties of the State contain an average of about 1,100 inmates,— men bound over for trial and short-term men. Workshops are maintained in connection with the larger jails, but the general system of county jail management remains as unsatisfactory as ever. Total number of criminals, about 1,600. Ratio, 1 to 500 of the population, which is now estimated to be about 800,000.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* There are no special institutions for this class.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* The Connecticut School for Boys at Meriden is a State institution, and has an average of 450 inmates. Greater facilities for physical development and for training in the elements of trades are needed. The Industrial School for Girls at Middletown is a private corporation, which receives support from the State for the girls who are committed there. It has an average of 250 inmates. A new honor home has recently been completed, which will serve as an intermediate step between the other cottages of the school and positions in families in the world outside.

Total number of insubordinates, 700. Ratio, 1 to 1,143 of the population.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *Poor in Poorhouses, etc.* Almshouses are maintained in 89 towns in the State in which the dependent poor of all ages are cared for, except children between the ages of four and eighteen. Average number of inmates, about 1,800, besides 400 persons supported in private homes for the aged, making a total of about 2,200.

Ratio, 1 to 364 of the population. A large number of persons are assisted with outdoor relief in all of the towns of the State, of whom it is difficult to obtain accurate statistics. Charity organization societies are conducted in six cities in the State, and work in harmony with the municipal authorities.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* A temporary home is provided in each of the eight counties for the shelter of dependent and neglected children, between the ages of four and eighteen, until suitable family homes can be found for them. The average number of inmates in the county homes is 615. The system of boarding-out children in family homes, instead of enlarging the county home institution, has been tried in New Haven County, and meets with the approval of the county home officials. Private asylums and homes furnish accommodations for about 900 children, making a total of 1,515 in the institutions. Ratio, 1 to 528 of the population.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured Poor.* The sick and injured poor are cared for in a number of city hospitals at the expense of the towns that send them and of the State, which furnishes appropriations for most of these hospitals.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *The Blind.* The State makes a general appropriation of $50,000 a year for the education of blind persons, to be expended under the direction of the State Board of Education of the Blind. About twenty pupils are supported at the Perkins Institution, South Boston, and about fifty others at the Institute and Industrial Home for the Blind in Hartford. This is a private institution, and consists of two departments, a kindergarten for children and the Industrial Home for Adults. Total, 70 pupils. Ratio, 1 to 11,430 of the population.

Class 2.— *The Deaf.* Provision is made for the education of the deaf by a general appropriation, under which contracts are made by the governor with institutions for this purpose. About 75 State pupils are maintained at the American School for the Deaf at Hartford, and about 25 more at the Mystic Oral School, a small private concern. Ratio, 1 to 8,000 of the population.

Class 3. — *Feeble-minded.* Feeble-minded children are cared for and instructed at State expense at the Connecticut School for Im-

beciles at Lakeville, a private institution. Average number of inmates, 175. Ratio, 1 to 4,570 of the population.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* The Connecticut Hospital for the Insane at Middletown has accommodations for about 1,800 inmates, and is constantly overcrowded. A commission was appointed by the last General Assembly to investigate the desirability of establishing another State hospital in some other part of the State, but its report has not yet been made public.

The Retreat for the Insane at Hartford has an average of 150 inmates. Eight private sanatoriums care for about 200 patients; and there are about 300 others, chiefly chronic cases in the town almshouses. Total, 2,450. Ratio, 1 to 327 of the population. The number of insane persons in the State is increasing gradually, but it has not yet been shown that the increase is out of proportion to the increase in population.

The cost to the State for the delinquent, dependent, and defective classes for the year ending Sept. 30, 1897, was $732,858. The cost to the towns for the year was $724,594. Total, $1,457,452, or an average of $1.82 per capita of the State's population.

DELAWARE.

BY MRS. EMALEA P. WARNER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature has increased the quota of each county from 3 to 5 children to enter the Feeble-minded School at Elwyn, Pa.; and a bill is now pending to amend the law for further education of idiotic children.

The Delaware Hospital for the Insane have erected a fine addition to their main building, at a cost of $35,000. An admirable new charter for city of Wilmington has been presented, but failed to pass.

During the year there have been organized the United Charities of Newcastle, the Relief Society of Dover, and the Home Mission of Wilmington, which accommodates men lodgers and gives employment to them.

The Florence Crittenton Home grew out of the Door of Hope. It gives shelter to unfortunate mothers and babies, and carries on practical industries.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* Are confined in three county jails in idleness and without classification. There are about 300.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* Tramps and drunkards make a large portion of the inmates of our jails, committed on short terms. The State workhouse is still a hope.

Class 3.—*Insubordinates.* In the Industrial School for Boys there are 70. In the Industrial School for Girls there are 26. Both institutions receive aid from Levy Court and legislature, as also from private subscription.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *The Aged Poor.* Are partly supported in our three county almshouses and in the Homes for Aged Women, for Aged Couples, and Sarah Ann White Home for Colored People. These institutions do not, however, meet all the needs of old people; and many are dependent upon public or private charity.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* Are chiefly sheltered in the Home for Friendless Children, which now has 70 children, St. Michael's Hospital and Home for Babies, St. Peter's Female Orphanage, Protectorate for Boys, and St. Joseph's Home for Colored Boys.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured.* Are cared for in the Delaware Hospital and the Homœopathic Hospital, and the hospital at the almshouse cares for the chronic sick poor.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *Blind.* No records for this class.

Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* No institution; but legislature appropriates funds to send 3 from each county to schools outside the State.

Class 3.— The legislature now allows 5 from each county to be sent to Elwyn, Pa.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* The State Hospital for the Insane contains 293 patients. A new building has just been completed, at a cost of $36,568.

The Sixth Annual Conference of Charities and Institutions was held April 26 and 27, 1898, in Wilmington.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

BY HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The most important legislation attempted since my last report has been the introduction in the Senate of a bill to establish a board of charities and another to provide for the compulsory support of children by parents.

The proposition to establish a board of charities comes now as a revival of the movement to that end begun in the Washington Board of Trade three years ago. It is now being looked after by the joint committee of Congress which was appointed for the consideration of all matters of this nature in the District. This committee, after investigations continued for two years, and with the accumulated experience of two similar committees which preceded it, says in its recent report: —

> The committee therefore recommends as the first step toward the efficient reorganization of the District charities the appointment of a board of charities, to be composed of five residents of the District of Columbia. This board should have the power to visit and inspect all institutions that receive appropriations from Congress and that are of a charitable, eleemosynary, correctional, or reformatory character. This board should be appointed by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate; and no payment for the care, support, and maintenance, should be made to such charitable, eleemosynary, correctional, or reformatory institutions for any inmates of such institutions who are not received and retained therein pursuant to the rules established by the Board of Charities.
>
> The legislation herein proposed is that which has been incorporated in the new constitution of the State of New York, an instrument which undoubtedly represents the best thought of the day on such matters. This board should have the power to elect its own officers and to appoint a secretary to take the place of the present Superintendent of Charities, and also to appoint such other officers, inspectors, and clerks as may be deemed necessary and proper, and to fix their compensation, such officers to hold office during the pleasure of the board. The members of the board should serve without salary, but should be entitled to the expenses incurred while in the actual performance of their duties. The records of the board and its proceedings and copies of all papers and documents in its possession and custody, when duly authenticated, should be received in evidence in the same manner and like effect as deeds regularly

acknowledged and proven. The board should have power to issue subpœnas, which, when authenticated by its president and secretary, should be obeyed and enforced in the same manner as subpœnas are enforced by the order or mandate of a court of record.

The bill is supported by the Superintendent of Charities, by the Board of Trade, and by various civic societies; and its approval is regarded as probable. A copy of the bill is appended.

The bill to provide for the compulsory support of children by parents originated with the Board of Children's Guardians, and arises out of the fact that under present laws a father may push off his children to become public dependants without fear of punishment or serious public reproach.

Two important charitable organizations have entered upon active work: one, a private voluntary corporation, having for its object the better care of the adult blind; the other, a semi-public corporation, formed at the solicitation of the local government, for the purpose of receiving such contributions as citizens may make for the relief of the poor in their own homes, and such income from invested funds as has heretofore usually been distributed to the poor by the metropolitan police. This corporation, known as the Citizens' Relief Committee, is the result of several years of careful work for the reformation of the troublesome matter of outdoor relief; and it is believed that it will furnish an agency for the distribution of such relief wholly trustworthy, and having for its particular duty the giving of outdoor relief. It is hoped that the many small irresponsible bodies will be discontinued, and that all classes of citizens can be induced not only to contribute to its funds, but send to it all applicants for relief.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* State prison convicts, 384.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* Jail and workhouse convicts, 687.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* In reform schools and industrial and reformatory institutions, 356.

Total, 1,427.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *Almshouse Cases.* 212.

Class 2.— *Dependent Children.* 749.

Class 3.— *In Hospitals.* 447.

Total, 1,408.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *Blind.* 22.
Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* 25.
Class 3.— *Feeble-minded Children.* 40.
Class 4.— *The Insane.* 866.
Total, 953.

Note.— Probably the number included in the above group of destitute is not more than half of the whole number which would properly be included. There are many aged persons, sick and indigent persons, unfortunate young mothers and children maintained in institutions which are supported wholly or principally by private means, who are not included. Not all the children included are wholly dependent; and, of those who are wholly dependent, not all are maintained wholly from public funds. Of those reported in hospitals, some contribute toward their own maintenance and treatment; and most of the hospitals (seven in number) have extensive lists of private contributors. About one-half of the hospital patients come from adjoining States. To the support of the hospitals the government contributes 77.5 per cent.

PROPOSED LAW.

A Bill to establish a Board of Charities in and for the District of Columbia.

There shall be established in the District of Columbia a board of charities, to consist of five members, residents of said District, who shall be appointed by the President of the United States by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, one for a term of one year, two for a term of two years, and two for a term of three years; and thereafter appointments shall be made for a term of three years, except that appointments to fill vacancies shall be for the unexpired terms. During his term of office no member shall serve as trustee or other administrative officer of any institution subject to the visitation of said board. The board shall elect a president and vice-president from among its members, and may appoint such other officers, inspectors, and clerks as it may deem proper, and fix the number, duties, and compensation of such officers, inspectors, and clerks, subject to appropriations of Congress. The Superintendent of Charities shall act as the secretary of said board; and hereafter he shall discharge only such duties as may be imposed upon him by the Board of Charities, and shall receive only such salary as may be fixed by the said board, subject to appropriation of Congress. The said Board of Charities shall visit, inspect, and maintain a general supervision over all institutions, societies, or associations of a charitable, eleemosynary, correctional, or reformatory character, which are sup-

ported in whole or in part by appropriations of Congress made for the care or treatment of residents of the District of Columbia; and no payment shall be made to such charitable, eleemosynary, correctional, or reformatory institution for any resident of the District of Columbia who is not received and maintained therein pursuant to the rules established by such Board of Charities, except in the case of persons committed by the courts. The said Board of Charities shall be provided with suitable rooms in the building occupied by other departments of the government of the District of Columbia. Regular meetings of said board shall be held at least once in each month, and more often, if required. The said board shall make such rules and orders for the regulation of its proceedings as may be deemed necessary. The officers in charge of all institutions subject to the supervision of the Board of Charities shall furnish said board, on request, such information and statistics as may be desired: and, to secure accuracy, uniformity, and completeness of such statistics, the board may prescribe such forms of report and registration as may be deemed to be essential. And all plans for new institutions shall, before the adoption of the same, be submitted to said board for suggestion and criticism. The commissioners of the District of Columbia may at any time order an investigation by the board or a committee of its members of the management of any penal, charitable, or reformatory institution in the District of Columbia; and said board, or any authorized committee of its members, when making such investigation, shall have power to send for persons and papers and to administer oaths and affirmations. And the report of such investigation, with the testimony, shall be made to the commissioners. All accounts and expenditures of such board shall be certified as may be required by the commissioners of the District of Columbia, giving a full and complete account of all matters placed under the supervision of the board, all expenses in detail, and all officers and agents employed, with a report of the secretary showing the actual condition of all institutions and agencies under the supervision of the board, the character and economy of the administration thereof, and the amount and sources of their private income. The said report shall also include recommendations for the economical and efficient administration of the charities and reformatories of the District of Columbia. The said board shall prepare and include with its annual report such estimates for future appropriations as will, in the judgment of a majority of its members, best promote the effective, harmonious, and economical management of the affairs under its supervision; and such estimates submitted shall be included in the regular annual Book of Estimates. No member or employee of said board shall be either directly or indirectly interested in any contract for building, repairing, or furnishing any institution which by this act the board is authorized to investigate and supervise. The Board of Charities, and any of its members or officers, may at

any time visit and inspect any institution subject to its supervision to ascertain if any inmates supported therein at government expense are properly district charges or are non-resident or alien poor, and may cause to be removed to the State or country from which he came any such non-resident or alien poor person round in any such institution. All acts or part of acts in conflict with the provisions of this section are hereby repealed.

FLORIDA.

No report received.

GEORGIA.

No report received.

IDAHO.

BY PRESIDENT F. B. GAULT, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislative sessions of the State of Idaho are held biennially, the last session having adjourned March 8, 1897.

A law was passed for the suppression of prostitution, which simply empowers municipal authorities to "regulate or to suppress and prohibit prostitution within the limits of their respective cities, towns, and villages" by means of such ordinances, by-laws, rules, and regulations as may be deemed effective.

Convicts sentenced to the penitentiary are to be conducted thither by the warden or by guards detailed by the warden. This is analogous to the law previously passed authorizing the superintendent of the insane asylum to send an attendant to conduct the insane to the asylum. These measures were prompted by both economic and humane reasons.

The Board of Pardons, consisting of the governor, secretary of State, and attorney general, are authorized to parole prisoners, except life convicts; but no convict shall be paroled who is known to have received a previous sentence in any prison for felony, nor shall any convict be paroled who has not received one-third of the full term of his sentence, not reckoning any good time.

The legislature also passed a measure requiring that the indigent

must be supported by the relatives of the same as far as their ability will permit.

Another law that was enacted contemplated the prohibition of gambling, but this was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the State. The law itself was not unconstitutional; but the preliminary steps of the legislature leading to the enactment of the same was at variance with the constitutional provisions, and so declared inoperative.

The State maintains an Insane Asylum at Blackfoot and a Penitentiary at Boisé. At the latter place there is also a Soldiers' Home, supported in part by the State, which avails itself of the federal provisions for such purposes. Some of the counties maintain poor-houses.

The blind, deaf-mute, and feeble-minded children are educated at the expense of the State, under the direction of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, who places these defectives in the schools or homes of the adjoining States for defective youth.

ILLINOIS.

BY F. C. DODDS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no regular session of the legislature within the past year, so there is no new legislation to report.

Much interest is being shown by the Illinois Federation of Women's Clubs in the field of charity and correction. At its annual meeting in October last it was resolved that the Philanthropic Committee be instructed to prepare a memorial to the next legislature, urging the passage of a bill for the care of dependent children, not criminal or delinquent, and that the clubs of the Federation be requested to urge the proposed bill, and to use all possible honorable and dignified means to secure its passage.

In endeavoring to stimulate public interest in the questions covered, the Philanthropy Committee of the Federation requests that a committee be appointed by each club, to urge the clergy of all churches in the various towns in which clubs exist to preach at least once a year upon philanthropic subjects of general interest and application to the dependent children in Illinois. Such committees

are requested to report progress before July 1 to the chairman of the State Philanthropy Committee.

The Illinois Conference of Charities and Correction held at Jacksonville in November last was well attended, and great interest manifested in the charitable work of the State.

One of the most important movements in the field of relief work during the past year was the formation of the Illinois Army and Navy League. This league was formed May 12, 1890, in response to the call of Governor Tanner. Its object is to assist and comfort Illinois soldiers in our armies, sailors on board our war-ships, and their families and dependants at home. It is non-partisan and non-sectarian, and will work in harmony with the military and naval authorities of Illinois and of the United States.

C. Group of Defectives, April 1, 1898.

Pupils in School for the Blind, 226.
Pupils in School for Deaf and Dumb, 498.
Feeble-minded children in State School, 659.
Inmates of insane hospitals, 5,566.

INDIANA.

BY AMOS W. BUTLER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature of Indiana has not been in session since the last report. There are now enough orphan asylums and children's homes within the State to care for all of the children demanding care while they are awaiting placement in homes.

In Evansville there has been organized an Associated Charities, the results of which for the first winter have been very satisfactory.

The law enacted by the last legislature, 1897, providing for the levy of a tax by the township trustee in each township, to pay for the poor relief drawn from the county treasury for that township, became effective in September, 1897. The result has been that the extreme amount of poor relief, as granted in many quarters by township trustees, has been brought home to the people to whom he is responsible, and is causing much inquiry on their part.

The first year of experience in Indiana under the compulsory educa-

tion law is drawing to a close. Almost without exception from every part of the State come reports of an improved condition of affairs. The law has been enforced; and, on the whole, the results are satisfactory, both to school authorities and the public. Closely associated with it, one supplementing the other in many instances, is the law prohibiting child labor in factories. The results of the first year's experience with this law are also in the main satisfactory. The operations of the law are not extended to children employed in stores and in occupations other than factories. This prevents reaching children who are so employed, except through the truancy law, for twelve consecutive weeks in the year.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* On April 1, 1897, the prison at Michigan City became the Indiana State prison. Only men are confined there, thirty years of age and upward, unless sentenced for murder or treason, or those who have proved incorrigible in the Reformatory. Jan. 31, 1898, there were 836 inmates. The Woman's Prison contained 45 inmates. The institution formerly known as the State Prison, South, became the Indiana Reformatory April 1, 1897. To it were transferred all convicts under thirty years of age, except such as were sentenced for treason or murder. On Jan. 31, 1898, there were 910 inmates.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* I have no records of the population of the workhouses and jails of the State.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* Jan. 31, 1898, there were 626 inmates enrolled in the Reform School for Boys, and 44 boys were absent on "ticket-of-leave." There were 281 inmates enrolled in the Reform School for Girls, and 66 absent on "ticket-of-leave."

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *The Poor in Poorhouses.* Aug. 31, 1897, there were 3,072 inmates in the poor asylums of the State. Jan. 31, 1898, there were 538 inmates in the State Soldiers' Home.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* Jan. 31, 1898, there were 637 inmates enrolled in the State Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home. Oct. 31, 1897, there were 1,401 children in the orphans' homes

which receive public aid. Aug. 31, 1897, there were 232 children in the county poor asylums. We have no record of the population of private orphanages. Under the act of the legislature of 1897 it became unlawful to retain in the poor asylums children between the ages of three and seventeen years after Jan. 1, 1898. As a result, the children comprehended in that law have almost entirely been removed from the poor asylums, and placed in orphans' homes. April 1, 1898, began the second year's work of the State agent authorized by the last General Assembly of this State. There have been placed in private families 102 children. The results of the first year of this work seem to be very satisfactory.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured.* There are no statistics at hand with relation to this group.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *The Blind.* There were enrolled in the Institute for the Blind Jan. 31, 1898, 125 inmates; poor asylums reported Aug. 31, 1807, 146 inmates; total, 271.

Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* Jan. 31, 1898, there were enrolled in the Institution for the Deaf 317 inmates; poor asylums reported Aug. 31, 1897, 52 inmates; total, 369.

Class 3.— *Feeble-minded Children.* Jan. 31, 1898, there were enrolled 575 inmates in the School for Feeble-minded Youth. In the poor asylum statistics, adults and children are grouped together; and, in consequence, no accurate statement can at this time be made as to the number of children there.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* Jan. 31, 1898, the four hospitals for the insane reported a total enrolled population of 3,259. There were Aug. 31, 1897, in the county poor asylums, 392 insane inmates. An addition has been built to the Southern Hospital for the Insane at Evansville, which has somewhat increased its capacity.

INDIAN TERRITORY.

No report received.

IOWA.

BY W. S. R. BURNETTE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The town legislature has been in regular session this year; and perhaps the most important measure passed was the establishment of a Board of Control, practically having charge of all the State institutions.

A roadside settlement at Des Moines has been established during the year, with the various departments adapted for that line of work.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* The State has two penitentiaries, at Fort Madison and at Anamosa. I have been unable to get exact statistics from either.

Class 2.— There are two Industrial Schools, one at Eldora for boys, and one at Mitchellville for girls. The average attendance in the boys' school during the past year has been about 500, and the income of 120 per year is equal to the number discharged. An excellent parole system is in force, that enables the boy not only to become proficient in some line of work by which he can make an honest living, but to effect his discharge under the rules of the institution.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— The number of adults in the poorhouses of the State is comparatively few, as several excellent institutions for the care of aged and infirm are in operation.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* The State maintains an orphanage at Davenport. 101 children were received during the past year, and 114 discharged, many of them going into private homes. The average during the past year was 490, 200 girls and 290 boys. Three-fifths of them were soldiers' children.

The Iowa Children's Home Society, a home-finding organization, — supported by philanthropy and benevolent people of the State,— has received something over 200 children, all of whom have been placed in homes.

The Christian Home at Council Bluffs has received 94, and placed

in homes 68 during the last calendar year. They have on hand now 210.

There are something less than 50 children supported in the almshouses and at public expense in the various counties of the State.

Class 3.— Several of our cities, chiefly Davenport, Des Moines, and Sioux City, have added a matron to the police department.

C. Defectives.

Class 1.— *Blind.* The State maintains a central school for the blind at Vinton, with a smaller one at Knoxville. From the last biennial report of the superintendent at Vinton we find that there are 246 inmates.

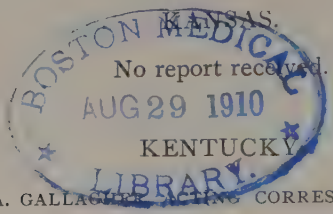
Class 2. — *Deaf-mutes.* The State maintains an institution near Council Bluffs for the education of deaf-mutes.

Class 3.— *Feeble-minded.* The magnificent institution at Glenwood lately injured by fire is being rebuilt. There are now about 730 pupils, with many applicants that cannot be received for want of room. 360 of the children are in the school department. The estimated value of the equipments is $350,000.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* Three asylums for the insane are now in operation, and the fourth at Cherokee will soon be completed; while there are a great number kept by the counties in local asylums that are thought to be incurable. At Clarinda there were 747 patients. At Mt. Pleasant the ninth biennial report gives an average of 885.

Independence Hospital has a capacity for 1,000 patients, and is full. Last year an industrial building was erected. It contains shops for male patients to work in, chiefly during the winter season. In it all the clothing for male patients is repaired, and some clothing for men is made. All shoes are repaired, and slippers for male patients are made. All brooms used in the institution are made in this shop out of corn raised on the hospital farm. The hard-wood sticks are used over and over again. Harnesses are repaired, cane-seated chairs are rebottomed, and rattan baskets are made and repaired. Rag carpeting, cocoa-fibre matting, and door mats are woven. All kinds of furniture are repaired. Pictures are framed. This building also contains a printing-office, which issues a monthly paper and does various kinds of job work. Besides, this building contains a large and well-arranged paint shop, in which carriages,

buggies, wagons, sleds and cutters, and farm implements are painted. Here furniture is brightened and painted. The hospital has a large farm. A training school for nurses is maintained, also a well-appointed pathological laboratory.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KANSAS.

No report received.

KENTUCKY.

BY EMMA A. GALLAGHER, ACTING CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

A bill for the appointment of jail matrons, and requiring that a matron be recommended by a committee of ladies selected from and appointed by the benevolent organizations of the city, was passed by the united and earnest efforts of philanthropic women of Louisville. And to the same influence may be ascribed suggested improvements in the jail, which will add to the health and comfort of the inmates.

Among the new charitable organizations or institutions of Louisville is a Neighborhood House, under charge of four residents; Head Resident, Mr. A. A. Hill. Its faithful workers are accomplishing much good. The Florence Crittendon Home was awakened to new energy by a series of public meetings conducted by its founder, Charles N. Crittenton, during a recent visit to this city. By the Order of Odd Fellows a Widows' and Orphans' Home is to be erected at Lexington, Ky., that city having offered a generous moneyed inducement to have the home located there.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* Are confined in two State prisons. During the past year 2,709 prisoners were received at the two penitentiaries. On hand at close of year, 1,700. The wardens strongly recommend the introduction of the "grade" system for the prisoners. Considerable money has been expended to insure greater comfort and better health.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* Are committed to the City Workhouse to serve terms of from thirty days to one year. Whites committed during year, 683; colored, 1,140; total, 1,823.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* Are committed to the Industrial School of Reform, if under seventeen years old. Two commodious buildings,— one for white and one for colored children. The highest number of inmates at any one time throughout year was 630; in school at close of fiscal year, 384.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— Such persons are supported in county poorhouses, also in institutions under the management of charitable societies or religious bodies.

Class 2.— The Children's Home Society in its various bodies throughout the State and the Kentucky Humane Society has a watchful care over this class. Of course, the numerous orphanages are open to many of them.

Class 3.— The hospitals of the different cities and the infirmaries are independent charitable corporations. Notably, the Children's Free Hospital of Louisville does noble work in caring for children of this class.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— The Kentucky Institute for the Education of the Blind, located in Louisville, received during the year 128, of whom 24 were colored. The annual allowance is $13,000, with a regular per capita of $140 a year. In connection with this institution the American Printing House for the Blind had 114 pupils.

Class 2.— The Institution for Deaf-mutes, located at Danville, Ky., enrolled 339 white pupils and 56 colored; total, 395.

Class 3.— The new buildings of the Feeble-minded Institute, erected at a cost of between $50,000 and $60,000, with all modern improvements, are open. There were 127 patients. They are admitted between the ages of six and eighteen. Only such as can be taught or are susceptible of mental development are received. A yearly allowance is made to relatives for the care of those who cannot be received at the Institute.

Class 4.— Three State Insane Asylums exist,— the Central, at Anchorage; the Eastern, at Lexington; and the Western, at Hopkinsville. Reports of these three asylums show that the increase of insanity is at about the same ratio as increase of population. Number of

patients during the year, 2,995. The physician in charge of the female service in the Western Asylum is a woman. About $140,000 has been expended on improvements in these institutions during the year.

In charity organization methods, co-operation is steadily on the increase. The Wayfarers' Lodge of Louisville is unique, in that it is self-sustaining. It saves to the city both trouble and large expense.

In the past year from its wood-yard were sold 22,337 barrels of kindling-wood.

LOUISIANA.

BY MICHEL HEYMANN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Our legislature was not in session this year; but we have now a Constitutional Convention in session, which has passed two ordinances,— one for the abolition of the lease system of convicts, and the other for a State Board of Charities and Corrections.

Our Charity Organization Society of New Orleans has done well, and may be compared favorably with older organizations.

Our Prison Reform Association has done splendid work. One of the most important reforms accomplished has been the separation of boys from adults in the local prisons. At the next meeting of our legislature, in May, we shall try to have a law passed for the indeterminate sentence and the separation of first offenders from hardened criminals, and, if possible, the creation of a reformatory for boys and one for men.

Five new kindergartens in the slums of the city are doing well, and we hope that many more will be added to the list in the near future.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* Are confined in the State Penitentiary at Baton Rouge. The present number of convicts is 1,047, of which 168 are white, and the rest negroes. Most of the convicts are in camps, employed in building roads, levees, etc.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* Number of prisoners in Parish Prison April 1, 1898, 211; in the Police Jail, 90; total, 301. The inmates of our Parish Prison and Police Jail are not of one class. They

are composed of prisoners arrested for simple offences, as well as criminals. No proper classification is made except the separation of children from grown men, as mentioned above.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* Number of boys in the House of Refuge, 91; wayward girls in the House of Good Shepherd, 303; total, 394. The House of the Good Shepherd is really not a State nor a city institution, but is governed by the Sisters of Charity.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *The Poor in Poorhouses.* The Shakespeare Almshouse reports on April 1, 1898, inmates, 123.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* The average number of children in orphan asylums (sectarian), 2,000.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured.* The Charity Hospital of New Orleans, a State institution, has a daily average of 715 inmates. There is another State institution in Shreveport, of which I can get no statistics.

C. Group of Offenders.

Class 1.— *The Blind.* There are about 35 blind children raised by the institution of the State in the School of the Blind at Baton Rouge.

Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* The number of deaf-mutes taken care of by the State is 93.

Class 3.— *Feeble-minded Children.* We have no provisions made by the State for this class of unfortunates.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* The State Insane Asylum at Jackson contains 1,023 insane persons, both male and female.

Comparative Showing of the Handling of the Convicts of Mississippi, Texas, Alabama, Virginia, Tennessee, and Louisiana,— Profits, State Control, and Death-rate.

Mississippi.— The Board of Control of the State Penitentiary says, in their annual report of 1897:—

"It is now demonstrated that the State can, without any danger of financial loss, employ its convicts in agricultural labor upon farms owned by the State.

"In 1895 the State made to its share 2,777 bales of cotton, in 1896 3,399 bales of cotton, in 1897 4,243 bales of cotton and 35,400 bushels of corn.

"At the end of 1896 there was to the credit of the Penitentiary Fund in the State treasury $47,397.23, and the net profit of the crop of 1897 is $30,090, making a total of $77,488, after payment of all expenses.

"The farms are worth from $5,000 to $10,000 more each than when purchased, improved by ditching, fencing, building, etc."

Texas.— The system of handling State convicts is partly on State farms and public works and partly on the lease system; but the State now furnishes all food, cooks, waiters, and camp-tenders.

L. A. Whatley, superintendent of the State Penitentiary, writes, under date Feb. 17, 1898, "I am strongly in favor of abolishing the lease system entirely, and working all convicts on State account."

In his biennial report he further states: "The second-class negroes who have been employed on the farm have proved more profitable to the State than those of the first class who have been leased to contractors.

"On said farm 164 convicts in two years, 1895 and 1896, produced a net profit of $101,905 over and above the cost of their keep.

"In my judgment the contract, or lease, system should be abolished: first, because of the uncertainty of contracting this labor at remunerative prices; second, from a humane standpoint the State control system should be adopted, even though it did not promise the financial results now obtained."

Alabama.— The Board of Inspectors of the Alabama Penitentiary, in their first biennial report, recommend that the State "take as many convicts out of the mines as practicable upon the expiration of the present lease, and have the State by that time as nearly independent of contractors as possible and with sufficient employment for its convicts."

Virginia.— Entirely under State control as to feeding, guarding, housing, clothing, discipline, punishment, and hours of labor exacted; but the labor of the greater part of the convicts is hired to contractors, who use them in the manufacture of shoes. Some 300, who are not fit for contract purposes, cultivate farms owned by the State.

The Board of Directors of the Virginia Penitentiary, in their annual report of Oct. 30, 1897, say, "There remains a net bal-

ance of profit for the year of $54,184, and during the fiscal year the convicts have made for themselves in twelve months $14,232."

Tennessee.— The system is somewhat similar to that of Virginia, the convicts being entirely under State control; but part of them are worked under contracts.

Despite the heavy expense of building a new penitentiary, in the construction of which the convicts were largely used, the system has been more than self-sustaining during the year 1897.

The Board of Prison Commissioners of Tennessee, in their annual report, say: "The commissioners, with the experience of the past year in the management of the convicts and with the propositions for convict labor now in hand, are warranted in predicting that, if the present system of convict employment is continued under the code of rules and regulations submitted, and the commissioners and governor authorized to contract for a sufficient term to secure employers of convict labor or purchasers or users of the product of convict labor, more net revenue will come into the State Treasury after the year 1897 from the penitentiary system than was received under the general wholesale lease system. The State will at the same time retain supervision, surveillance, and control over the convicts; their feeding, clothing, guarding, punishment and rewarding, instruction, grading, and classification, instead of turning over the convicts to a lessee or an irresponsible sub-lessee, to be starved, frozen, crippled, maimed, and mistreated, which system is so revolting to humanity and a blot upon civilization, and, happily, fast becoming, throughout the States, but a memory of the barbarous ages."

Death-rate.

Mississippi.— The Board of Control states: "The death-rate is less than half that of 1896, due to better clothing, better food, and the cages being kept in better condition." The death-rate in 1897 was 54 out of 911; in 1896, 114 out of 938; in 1895, 74 out of 990, say 8.5 per cent., or 85 to 1,000.

Louisiana.— The statistics of the State Board of Control of the penitentiary shows the death-rate to be for the past three years: in 1897, 68 out of 1,060; in 1896, 216 out of 1,001; in 1895, 67 out of 1,152,— say 11 per cent., or 110 to 1,000, an excess in Louisiana over Mississippi of 2.5 per cent., or 25 to 1,000.

Texas.— Death-rate in 1897 was 84 out of 4,563; in 1896, 90 out of 4,429; in 1895, 111 out of 4,153,— say 2.5 per cent., or 22 to 1,000, an excess in Louisiana over Texas of 8.8 per cent.

Alabama.— Death-rate for two years, Aug. 31, 1894 to 1896, 208 out of 2,418,— say 8.5 per cent., or 85 to 1,000, an excess in Louisiana over Alabama of 2.5 per cent. (and a large part of the convicts are worked in the coal mines,— the hardest of labor).

Tennessee.— Death-rate in 1897 was 50 out of 1,450,— say 3.5 per cent., or 35 to 1,000, an excess in Louisiana over Tennessee of 7.5 per cent.

Virginia.— Death-rate in 1897 was 33 out of 1,682,— say 2 per cent., or 20 to 1,000, an excess in Louisiana over Virginia of 7.5 per cent., or 75 to 1,000.

These comparisons need no comment; and Louisiana should follow the lead of her sister Southern States in the solution of this grave problem, full of dangers to the national and moral advancement of the Commonwealth.

Abolish the convict lease system forever.

Create a State Board of Charities and Corrections, whose duty it shall be to investigate just such things as these.

MAINE.

BY MRS. L. M. N. STEVENS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no session of the legislature since the last report.

MARYLAND.

BY MISS KATE M. MCLEAN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The most important action of the Maryland legislature for 1898 was the enactment of a new charter for Baltimore City.*

Children or adults, *supported by the city*, must, within certain definite limits, be cared for according to the city's best judgment, as expressed through her selected agents, "appointed by the mayor from among those whom he deems, by reason of their intelligence,

*See "Baltimore," in Report of Standing Committee on Municipal and County Charities.

experience, and character, to be most capable of caring for the poor, economically, intelligently, and humanely." It is understood that women, under the new charter, are eligible for appointment on the unpaid boards.

The legislature passed a bill raising the age of protection from fourteen to sixteen years, and a bill prohibiting the commitment of any insane person to a private or public institution without an order of some court of record, such order not requiring a trial by jury. This important step for the protection of the insane places Maryland's lunacy laws in close relation to those of New York. Two counties, Harford and Frederick, secured improved legislation in regard to visitors and commissioners for their jails and almshouses. The Harford County Almshouse and Jail are to have three women visitors appointed by the judges of the Circuit Court, these visitors making their annual report to the county commissioners. Two other signs of progress in the counties may be noted: first, Hagerstown, Washington County, has put tramps at work on its streets, in a chain-gang; second, local hospital provision is being provided in several of the Eastern Shore counties, and this interest the legislature was urged to recognize, but it declined to do so.

The legislature just adjourned appropriated $220,000 for the "Second State Hospital for the Insane" ("Springfield," at Sykesville, Md.) to finish paying for the first group of buildings just completed, and to build another group during 1898–99. If the next legislature, as is hoped, authorizes another group of buildings for insane women at Springfield, Maryland will be nearer the solution of her problem. There still are some 900 insane in almshouses, whose care in most cases is subject to the whims of political appointees, and whose nursing is mainly done by fellow-paupers, called by courtesy of sound mind. The election May 7 of Dr. George J. Preston as secretary of the State Lunacy Commission in place of Dr. William Lee (deceased) gives courage to the advocates of improved lunacy laws and State care for the insane.

Mr. Gould, chairman of the Assembly Ways and Means Committee, introduced a bill authorizing the governor to appoint a commission of five persons who should recommend to the legislature of 1900 a plan for the regulation of appropriations to and State supervision of all public and private charitable and correctional institutions receiving public money. While the bill failed to pass, it

was a first official step in the right direction. It directed the attention of the legislators, and, through the press, of the people generally, to the need of a State Board of Charities.

The first Maryland State Conference of Charities and Corrections was held in Baltimore last November, with some 300 delegates, representing over forty city and county societies and institutions. The four sessions were well attended, and a permanent organization was formed. The topics discussed were "State Care of the Insane, Epileptic, and Feeble-minded," "Child-saving," and "State, County, and Municipal Care of the Poor."

This past winter the Police Commissioners issued a dignified request to the public, urging them to dispense emergency alms, not through the police, but through recognized charity channels. This wise action was in response to the united representations of many charitable agencies and leading citizens, and was indorsed by the editors of the Baltimore *Sun*, who distributed to private societies a large sum formerly sent to the police stations. The Henry Watson Children's Aid Society has added a new department to its work, a main feature of which is the supervision of children in their own homes when not considered proper subjects for placing-out. The department is in charge of an intelligent charity worker, and this extension of the field of child-saving work in Baltimore is one of the most encouraging advances of the year, while it practically commits this child-saving agency to more progressive methods in all its departments.

The unification of the respective six districts of the Charity Organization Society and the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor, and the cordial co-operation of these two societies on sound principles, has had an important influence on charitable work in Baltimore. The growing spirit of fellowship in work, which the Charity Organization Society so distinctly stands for, was expressed during February and March by the large attendance of workers from over twenty charitable societies, at a course of eight afternoon lectures given by the general secretary of the Charity Organization Society on charitable work in the homes of the poor.

Two associations have been recently formed in Baltimore on right lines. The Baltimore Association of Sewing Schools is "a centre of information and conference, where progressive methods of work in other cities may be studied, with a view of adopting any that are ad-

visable." All schools teaching sewing as charity are eligible for membership ($1 fee); and all teachers are given free instruction in the normal sewing class taught by a graduate of the New York Teacher's College, her salary being paid by the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor. The Chattel Loan Association, capital $30,000, is just organized. It proposes to loan to poor people against their furniture and other chattels, and its business management will follow closely that of similar societies in other cities.

MASSACHUSETTS.

BY JOHN D. WELLS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature of 1898 has enacted a law providing for the employment of prisoners in making goods for the use of prisons and other institutions, and also in preparing road material by hand labor; and legislation is now pending to authorize their employment in reclaiming waste lands.

A bill is pending, and will, undoubtedly, be enacted, providing for the establishment of a State Board of Insanity, to perform most of the duties with regard to the public and private institutions for the insane in the Commonwealth now required of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity, with some new duties added. The board is to consist of five persons, two at least of whom shall be experts in insanity. It is to appoint an executive officer, who shall be a physician and an expert in insanity, and who may be a member of the board. With the exception of the executive officer the members of the board are to serve without pay.

The board is to have general supervision over the State hospitals and asylums for the insane, and all other institutions and receptacles for insane and feeble-minded patients, public and private, the State Hospital for Epileptics, the State Hospital for Dipsomaniacs and Inebriates, the School for the Feeble-minded, and the Hospital Cottages for Children. It is to inspect all plans for new buildings for institutions coming under the supervision of the board, and no new building shall be erected unless the plans and specifications for the same have been approved by the board. Plans for any extension or alteration of existing buildings, involving an expenditure of more than two thousand dollars, must be likewise approved by the board.

The board is to act as a commission in insanity, with power to investigate the question of the insanity and condition of any person committed to any hospital or asylum for the insane, public or private, or restrained of his liberty by reason of alleged insanity, at any place within the Commonwealth, and shall discharge any person so committed or restrained if, in its opinion, such person is not insane, or can be cared for after such discharge without danger to others and with benefit to himself. The board is to have the power of transfer from one institution for the insane to another. It is to prescribe forms of certificates required by law for the commitment of all persons to institutions under its supervision. It is to prescribe a uniform system of keeping accounts in the several State institutions under its supervision. It is to administer the law regarding the boarding of insane patients from institutions in families.

Under the provisions of the new act the State Board of Lunacy and Charity is to become the State Board of Charity.

A majority of the committee of the legislature, to which the matter was referred, have reported against any farther changes in the constitution of the present Board of Lunacy and Charity: but a minority report has been presented, providing for the abolishment of the existing board and the establishment of two boards in its place,— a State Board of Charity and a Department for Children.

Legislation is pending providing for changes in the pauper laws of the Commonwealth, chiefly with reference to questions of settlement.

The State Hospital for Epileptics, authorized by the legislature of 1895 to be established on the site of the old State Primary School in the town of Monson, has just been opened. It consists at present of three brick buildings; namely, an administrative building of three stories in the centre, with rooms for offices, dispensary, and laboratory, apartments for the superintendent's family, and rooms for the other officers, and on either side cottages for men and women respectively, each designed to accommodate one hundred persons. Each of these buildings is divided into four wards of equal size, each ward containing a day-room, dining-room, dormitory, and four bed-rooms, besides bath, toilet, clothes-rooms, etc., and a kitchen in the basement. Some of the old school buildings have been remodelled into cottages for the employees, laundry, bakery, etc.

The hospital is authorized to receive: first, adult epileptics who are not criminals, idiots, inebriates, or violently insane, both by transfer from the State hospitals for the insane and by direct judicial commitment; secondly, it may receive as boarders and voluntary patients sane epileptics, who may be detained for a period not exceeding three months after giving notice of their intention or desire to leave the institution; and, thirdly, it may receive by judicial commitment sane voluntary patients who are unable to pay the charges for their support.

The hospital buildings now completed will scarcely provide for one-half of the epileptics now in the institutions for the insane, and new buildings will undoubtedly have to be erected at an early day.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Adult Criminals.* State prison, 837; Reformatory Prison for Women, 291; Massachusetts Reformatory, 977; county jails, 728; county houses of correction, 4,188; State Farm, 827; total, 7,848.

Class 2.— *Vicious and Insubordinate Children.* In Reform Schools, 433; in families, 1,299; total, 1,732.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *Adults.* In State institutions, 1,048; in local almshouses, 3,559; in families, 480; total, 5,087.

Class 2.— *Children.* State charges in families, 1,580; town charges in institutions, 810; town charges in families, 168; total, 2,558.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *Insane and Feeble-minded.* In hospitals and asylums, 6,632; boarded out from hospitals, 116; in local almshouses, 1,230; town charges in families, 123; in School for Feeble-minded, 562; total, 8,663.

Class 2.— *Deaf.* In institutions, 312.

Class 3.— *Blind.* In institutions, 264.

MICHIGAN.

BY DR. JAMES A. POST, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The State legislature meets biennially. The last regular session closed May 29, 1897. A special session was called for March, 1898, and has adjourned without accomplishing anything but to pass some war measures, etc.

At the session of 1897 two important bills were passed, which were not mentioned in our last report: 1. A bill in the interest of children, relative to the testimony in courts of husband and wife. It was hoped by the Protective Agency for Women and Children (who urged the passage of the law) that, by giving it a broader scope, they could reach some of the heinous crimes now screened behind the sanctity of marriage relations. They argued that, while in divorce suits nothing is too sacred for open court, a mother may not testify against an incestuous husband, though it be to protect her own child's virtue. As passed, the bill was divested of everything but the clause providing

That a husband may testify for or against his wife without her consent, and a wife may testify for or against her husband without his consent, in all criminal prosecutions for bigamy.

2. A bill for the protection of children (modelled after the Ohio law). The bill provides

That any parent or guardian or person under whose protection any child may be, who tortures, cruelly or unlawfully punishes, or wilfully, unlawfully, or negligently deprives of necessary food, clothing, or shelter, or who wilfully abandons a child under sixteen years of age, or who habitually causes or permits the health of such a child to be injured, his or her life endangered by exposure, want, or other injury to his or her person, or causes or permits him or her to engage in any occupation that would be likely to endanger his or her own health or deprave his or her morals, or who habitually permits him or her to frequent public places for the purpose of begging or receiving alms, or to frequent the company of or to consort with reputed thieves or prostitutes, or by vicious training depraves the morals of such a child, shall upon conviction be deemed guilty of a felony, and punished by imprisonment in the county jail or in the State prison, or the State House of Correction at Ionia at hard labor for not more than five years nor less than three months. Provided, however, if,

after such conviction, and before sentence, in case the child has not been deformed or maimed, he or she shall appear before the clerk of the court in which said conviction shall have taken place, and with good and sufficient surety, to be approved by said clerk, enter into bonds to the people of the State of Michigan in the penal sum of $1,000, conditioned that he or she will furnish such child or children with necessary and comfortable home, care, food, shelter, protection, and clothing, the said court may suspend sentence therein.

Under the head of Question 2 we note the formation of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children for Wayne County, Mich., but to apply especially to the city of Detroit. This society was organized in February, 1898, and is already doing good work, having had 41 complaints during the month of March.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* Inmates June 30, 1897: Michigan State prison, Jackson, 843; average, 817. State House of Correction, Ionia, 538; average, 539. State House of Correction, Marquette, 200; average, 204. Detroit House of Correction, 490; average, 486. Totals, 2,071 and 2,046.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* No separate report.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* Inmates June 30, 1897: Industrial School for Boys, Lansing, 606; average, 591. Industrial School for Girls, Adrian, 304; average, 300. Totals, 910 and 891.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.—*The Poor in Poorhouses.* Total in the State poorhouses, June 30, 1897, 4,662; average, 2,565.

Class 2.—*Destitute Children.* Inmates June 30, 1897: State Public School, Coldwater, 146; average, 148.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured.* No separate report.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *The Blind.* Inmates June 30, 1897, School for the Blind, Lansing, 91; average, 95.

Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* Inmates June 30, 1897, School for the Deaf, Flint, 400; average, 400.

Class 3.— *Feeble-minded Children.* Inmates June 30, 1897, Home for Feeble-minded and Epileptic, Lapeer, 200; average, 200.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* Inmates June 30, 1897: Michigan Asylum, Kalamazoo, 1,213; average, 1,200. Eastern Asylum, Pontiac, 1,061; average, 1,061. Northern Asylum, Traverse City, 1,000; average, 1,005. Asylum for Criminal and Dangerous Insane, 221; average, 218. Upper Peninsula Hospital for Insane, 241; average, 171. Wayne County Asylum, Eloise, 345; average, 331. Total insane, 4,081 and 3,986.

MINNESOTA.

BY GEORGE G. COWIE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No session of the legislature has been held during the past year, so that there is no legislation to report.

The law passed in 1897 providing for the deportation of alien and non-resident insane and paupers has resulted in a decided check on the increase of insane in the State institutions. On April 30, 1898, there were in the three hospitals 3,189 insane as against 3,082 a year ago,— an increase of only 3½ per cent. Before this law went into operation, the average annual increase was about 8 per cent.

The Minnesota Conference of Charities and Correction held its sixth annual meeting in St. Cloud last November. The conference was fully up to its predecessors in interest and importance.

The custodial department of the Institution for Feeble-minded at Faribault has now been established and properly equipped.

The board of managers of the State Public School at Owatonna intend in the near future to give special attention to the placing-out department of the work of the institution.

In this connection it may be noted that the State agency work at the State Training School at Red Wing has resulted in a gratifying diminution in the population of the school.

The binder twine industry at the State prison, Stillwater, still continues in successful operation.

A new cell wing has been erected at the State Reformatory, the labor being performed by the inmates.

Mr. H. H. Hart, for many years the energetic and efficient secretary of the Minnesota State Board of Charities and Correction, recently

resigned, in order to accept the superintendency of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, with headquarters in Chicago. He has been succeeded by Mr. James F. Jackson, formerly secretary of the St. Paul Associated Charities.

A. Group of Delinquents, Dec. 31, 1897.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* In Stillwater State prison, 531; St. Cloud Reformatory, 178; in jails and lockups, 213; total, 922.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* In workhouses, etc., 388.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* In State Training School, Red Wing, 330.

B. Group of Destitutes, Dec. 31, 1897.

Class 1.— *The Aged Poor.* In homes, etc., 235.

Class 2. *Destitute Children.* In State institution at Owatonna, 257; in private institutions, 726; total, 983.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured.* In 25 hospitals, 845.

C. Group of Defectives, Dec. 31, 1897.

Class 1.— School for the Blind, 68.

Class 2.— School for Deaf-mutes, 223.

Class 3.— School for Feeble-minded children, 601.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* In State hospitals, 3,114. No insane in county or private institutions.

MISSISSIPPI.

No report received.

MISSOURI.

BY MISS MARY E. PERRY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

As no session of the legislature has been held since 1897, I have but little to report.

We have no municipal outdoor relief; and this kind of work is done mostly through the Provident Associations of St. Louis, Kansas City, and St. Joseph, the United Hebrew and St. Vincent de Paul Soci-

eties. The Provident is the principal organized charity, upon which devolves most of the responsibility of furnishing employment and giving aid; and the report for the fiscal year ending Nov. 1, 1897, will give an accurate idea of the scope and manner of this work.

The St. Louis Provident Association reports direct aid to a class incapable of self-support in whole or part, constituting about 50 per cent. of applicants; and in entire disability from various causes, 36 per cent.

Industrial agencies for self-help, affording material relief and training of the unskilled for self-support: —

Wood-yard and free employment bureau for men, homeless and householders; laundry; sewing rooms for hand-work, and miniature factory and machines run by electric power; men's and women's lodges; day nursery and kindergarten; visiting nurse department, with two trained nurses; cheap-meals restaurant. Investigation: original visits, 6,064; revisitations, 15,109; calls by inspectors on delivery wagons, 10,860; registration total to date since organization, nearly 100,000. Total expenditure last year, $50,754.50; since organization 1860, $781,292.08.

The United Hebrew Association has expended for charity $11,000 during the past year.

There has been some activity in private charity during the past winter. Among the important things was a gift to the Salvation Army of a handsome Rescue Home for women.

Social settlements and free kindergartens have been established and maintained by a section of one of the clubs, and another club has secured female day and night guards for the care of the women in our jail and workhouse.

In referring to organizations and influences for good in the community, particularly among the wage-earners, the St. Louis Society of Ethical Culture is taking a foremost place. It has self-culture halls in different parts of the city, where young men and women meet to study, and where every week five or more courses of lectures are given by some of our most prominent citizens. They have free reading-rooms, and free concerts are given every Sunday. On Saturdays the domestic economy schools teach to young girls the principles of home-making and housekeeping. 5,000 is the average monthly attendance in all the branches of the Ethical Society work, which is characterized by strict neutrality in religion and politics.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* 2,281 in the State prison at Jefferson City; 800 in jails, many of whom are awaiting sentence.

Class 2.— *Vicious* (drunkards, vagrants, and prostitutes). 613 in the workhouses of St. Louis and Kansas City.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* 857 in our two reformatories at Boonville and Chillicothe, and House of Refuge in St. Louis.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— In the poorhouses, 3,000.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* 2,500 in private institutions and church homes. No State aid.

Class 3.— *Sick and Injured.* 525 in the city hospital (St. Louis); 225 in St. Louis Female Hospital. Many more in Catholic and private institutions.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *The Blind.* Population, 2,500. 160 in the State School at St. Louis.

Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* 2,000 in the State. 348 in the State School at Fulton.

Class 3.— *Feeble-minded Children.* 1,000 within the limit of the school age. No provision by the State.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* 3,700 in the asylums at Fulton, Nevada, St. Joseph, and St. Louis. 300 in county poor-farms.

MONTANA.

BY MRS. LAURA E. HOWEY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature has not met since the last report. A society for finding homes has been established, and is in charge of Isabel Dowden.

Delinquent children are cared for in the Reform School at Miles City. The blind and deaf-mutes are sent to the Colorado State School at Boulder. The insane are cared for in the State asylum at Warm Springs.

NEVADA.

No report received.

NEW MEXICO.

BY REV. MARY J. BORDEN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no new legislation. All appropriations were decreased.

The most important new charitable work established during the year was a Cuban Relief Society and Local Italian Relief at Gallup, New Mexico.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* Criminal convictions, 94.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* 75.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *The Blind.* 16.
Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* 27.
Class 4.— *The Insane.* 70.

NEBRASKA.

BY A. W. CLARK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no meeting of our legislature during the past year.

No new charitable institution has been established the past year in our State. A State Cuban Relief Commission has been created, which has raised over $10,000 for the benefit of sufferers in Cuba, and, in addition to that, sent large quantities of provisions.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* One State Penitentiary, with 319 inmates.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* The Bureau of Statistics will soon complete its work in securing the information desired.

Class 3.—*Insubordinates.* The Industrial School for Boys has 180 inmates, the School for Girls has 75 inmates, and the Industrial Home for Reforming Young Women has 70 inmates.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *The Poor in Poorhouses, etc.* This population is made up mostly by aged poor. A few children and a very few insane are also found in them.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* The Home for the Friendless is a State institution, and takes care of 90 to 100 children. Denominational and private organizations are also engaged in this work.

Class 3.—*The Sick and Injured.* No State provision is made for them. Four denominational hospitals are maintained in the State, and most of the counties help the sick and injured.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *The Blind.* The Institute for the Blind has 76 pupils, and does educational and industrial work.

Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* There is an institution for these defectives, with 179 in attendance.

Class 3.— *Feeble-minded Children.* The Institution for Feeble-minded has 218 inmates. Some of this class are under private and some under county care.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* There are three State hospitals for insane, with an aggregate population of 1,108. A reduction of nearly 50 per cent. in expenses for care of insane patients has been made since 1892. At the same time they have better care.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

BY MRS. I. N. BLODGETT, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

After several hearings by way of education, the work of the State Board of Charities and Correction was most cordially indorsed by our last legislature. The board is unpaid and non-partisan, and numbers five, two of whom are women.

The only new work to report is a hospital at Laconia, the gift of its citizens, and the Wentworth Home for the Aged at Portsmouth.

The State Federation of Women's Clubs passed resolutions at the annual meeting last October looking toward improvement in the care of the indigent insane. Much is expected from the committee then appointed. An attempt is now being made by the Manchester Federation of Women's Clubs to establish the curfew law in that city.

Before another annual report is due, we hope to hold our first Conference of Charities, probably during the next session of the legislature.

We have returns from all jails and houses of correction; and I think returns show no special increase of crime or insanity, taking into consideration the natural increase of population. I am fortified in this opinion by our physician in charge of the State Insane Asylum, Dr. C. P. Bancroft.

You will notice that the number of destitute children are less, because they have been provided with permanent homes.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* 182 men, 4 women; total, 186.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* In jails, 139; House of Correction, 121; total, 260.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* 113 boys, 23 girls; total, 136.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *The Poor in Poorhouses, etc.* 970.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* 394.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured.* Correct returns are not obtainable.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *The Blind*, 15.

Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* 31 in training schools.

Class 3.— *Feeble-minded Children.* 30 in remedial institutions.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* 756 in insane asylums and county almshouses.

NEW JERSEY.

BY HUGH F. FOX, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

I submit herewith a table showing the amount of money spent by the tax-payers of New Jersey for public charities and corrections, with the number of persons who may be said to be officially recognized as belonging to the dependent, defective, and delinquent classes.

In addition there are over 3,000 children in the care of private orphan asylums and children's homes, who represent an annual expenditure of at least $160,000.

The State Insane Asylums are both greatly overcrowded, and the facilities of almost every institution in the State are taxed to the utmost.

The Reform School for Boys at Jamesburg employs an agent, who visits the boys out on parole or under indenture, 81 per cent. of whom are reported to be doing well. Parents and guardians are also visited at their homes before the boys return there, to ascertain whether they are fit to care for the boys. The school conducts sloyd, industrial, farm, and manual training.

The average age of the girls received at the Reform School for Girls is fifteen. Out of 968 girls received since the school was started, 375 were of degenerate origin; *i.e.*, intemperate, criminal, or irregular parentage.

Of the 1,131 prisoners in the State prison in Trenton, 185 are illiterate.

The State Hospital for the Insane at Trenton is in its fiftieth year. It spent $71,000 during the past year in improvements and additions, which were paid for from "accumulated earnings." The managers prepared an act to remedy the defective character of the commitment of patients to institutions for the insane (State, county, or private); but it failed of passage in the legislature.

New Jersey has no separate institution for epileptics, but the legislature appropriated $10,000 to establish an epileptic colony. There is no provision for the convict insane. There are a number of county insane asylums, so called; but several of them are merely a part of the almshouse, with no provision for supervision by attendants or trained nurses, and no regular medical supervision. The Hudson County Insane Asylum is, however, a conspicuous exception, thanks to the efficient direction of Dr. King.

The commission which was appointed to inquire into the condition of dependent children in the State, and to suggest a plan for their removal from the almshouses, made an elaborate report to the legislature, embodying a digest of the various methods of caring for dependent children in the principal States. They have formulated a plan for the removal of children from almshouses, and have devised a system of caring for destitute children and protecting their interests throughout the State which has no parallel in any State of the Union at present. It was favorably reported in the Senate, but met with strong opposition from the Children's Home Society. Owing to the early adjournment of the legislature, it failed of passage. However, the commission was continued for another year; and it is expected that the plan in all its main features will be adopted at the next session. The bill provides for the appointment by the governor of a State Board of Children's Guardians, to consist of five members, two of whom shall be women. The members are to serve without compensation for the term of five years each, the first appointments being for one, two, three, four, and five years respectively.

The board is to maintain a general supervision over all dependent children who may become adjudged public charges by reason of destitution, all such children becoming *ipso facto* wards of the State Board of Guardians.

The bill further provides that in every county the judge of the Supreme Court shall appoint a county branch of the State Board of Guardians, who are to have the immediate control, care, and protection of the children in the county in which they become dependent. Both the State Board and the county branches have power to appoint visiting agents.

As to the manner of caring for children, the county branches shall, when practicable, place them in the care of some private family with or without the payment of board, subject to the rules of the State Board, being guided in the selection of such homes by the religious faith of the parents of the children. Children may be committed to an institution or asylum maintained by the county for a period not to exceed nine months. Children over one year of age shall not be maintained in an almshouse for more than thirty days. Children who may be deemed unfit to be placed in private families may be placed in hospitals or other institutions of special character.

Charity Organization Societies have recently been started in Elizabeth and Jersey City. Paterson and Hoboken are the only

two important cities in the State where such work is conspicuously lacking.

Three years ago the legislature appropriated $180,000 for the purpose of erecting the buildings necessary to establish the State Reformatory at Rahway, which is modelled after the plan of the Elmira Reformatory. No appropriation was made by the last legislature for the continuation of this work. The commission reports that in order to open the Reformatory an expenditure of $325,000 will be necessary.

The legislature declined to make the necessary appropriation, and the work is absolutely at a standstill. It is an heroic illustration of the difficulty of creating a public sentiment for the mere reformation of delinquents.

THE STATISTICS OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS IN NEW JERSEY.

	Number.		*Cost.*
Feeble-minded Children . .	178	Vineland (private)	$44,655
" " Women and Girls	103	Vineland (State)	20,000
" " Children . .	41	In Pennsylvania	8,881
Blind Children	24	In N.Y. Institution for Blind	8,080
" "	19	In Pa. Institution for Blind .	5,275
In Conn. School for Imbeciles	2		394
Deaf-mutes, Children	139	In N.J. School for Deaf-mutes	40,096
Insane N.J. State Hospital .	1,177	Morris Plains	323,080
" " " "	1,063	Trenton	252,359
" in County Asylums .	1,544	(Cost included in above)	
Total Defectives . . .	4,290		$702,820
Delinquent Boys at Reform School	381	Jamesburg	$76,946
Delinquent Girls at Industrial School	124	Trenton	20,744
State Prison	1,131	Trenton	132,982
County Jails, etc.	3,946	Estimated 20 cents per day .	288,057
Total Delinquents . . .	5,582		$518,730
County Almshouses	1,195		$204,714
Poor Fund of Cities, Boroughs, Towns, and Townships . .	7,389	Families estimated $3 per month	266,038
Home for Disabled Soldiers .	555	Cost to State	20,500
County Expenses for Soldiers in Burials			18,601
Total Dependants . . .	9,139		$509,853

	Number.	*Cost.*
Defective	5,290	$702,820
Delinquent	5,582	518,730
Dependent	9,139	509,853
Total Persons	20,011	$1,731,403

Population of New Jersey in 1897, 1,764,194, estimated. The total cost is therefore equivalent to a poll tax of about a dollar on every man, woman, and child in the State.

NEW YORK.

BY HOMER FOLKS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The most important legislation of 1898 relating to charities was the passage of a bill regulating the placing-out of children. The reports of the State Board of Charities for 1896 and 1897 told of the discovery of serious abuses arising from the careless placing of children in families and from other causes. The State Board of Charities prepared, and caused to be introduced, a bill authorizing it to make rules and regulations concerning the placing-out of children. These rules were to be binding upon the placing-out work of all officials, individuals, societies, and institutions; and any violation of the rules was to be a misdemeanor. A substitute bill was introduced, providing, in effect, that the State Board of Charities, when it discovered that a person or corporation had placed-out children for purposes of gain or with gross carelessness, might prohibit such person or corporation from thereafter placing out children. As each of these bills excited considerable opposition and neither seemed likely to pass, a third bill was finally prepared, at the instance of the Board, upon which practically all those interested in legislation upon the subject united and which became law. Its principal provisions are as follows:—

Unincorporated societies, societies incorporated in other States, and individuals wishing to engage in placing-out work must first secure a license from the State Board of Charities, such licenses to be revocable by said board in its discretion. Incorporated societies and public officials are to continue their work as heretofore. All placing-out agencies are to keep proper records, showing the names and ages of the children and the names and residences of the persons with whom they are placed. Children who have been placed in

families, but not legally adopted, may be visited by the State Board of Charities, in its discretion. So far as practicable, children are to be placed with families of the same religious faith as the parents of the children. Whenever the State Board of Charities decides, after due notice and a hearing, that any person or corporation has placed out children for gain or without due investigation, with the result that the children are cruelly or improperly treated, the board may issue an order prohibiting such person or corporation from placing-out children, such action being subject to review by the Supreme Court.

The legislature reflected credit upon itself by finally declining to pass several unwise bills which were introduced, and made some progress. The first of these, known as the "Destitute Mothers'" bill, provided that any child committed to an institution in the city of New York might be returned by the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children to its parents, whereupon the comptroller was authorized to pay to such society to be handed over by it to the parents of the child the same amount of money per week as the city had been paying the institution. The bill was opposed by the State Board of Charities and by all the leading charitable societies and institutions of New York City, the objection being that it would establish a particularly dangerous and objectionable form of public outdoor relief, and that it placed in the hands of private societies powers that should be exercised only by public judicial officers. The bill, although introduced on the opening day of the session, made little progress.

The new charter of New York City discontinued the free distribution of coal by the Department of Public Charities. Bills were introduced to re-establish this custom, not only in those boroughs in which the practice prevailed previous to consolidation, but also in the borough of Brooklyn, which had had no public outdoor relief since 1878. These bills, although they passed the Assembly, failed to pass the Senate. A bill for establishing a farm colony for vagrants passed the Senate, but failed in the Assembly.

The consolidation of the former city of New York with Brooklyn, Richmond County, and a large part of Queens County into one municipality, involved a radical reorganization of the public charities in that territory. The former Department of Correction of New York City was continued and extended so as to include the Kings County Penitentiary, the only other correctional institutions in Greater New

York being the four county jails which are under the charge of the sheriffs. The Department of Correction is managed by one commissioner. At the head of the Department of Public Charities there are three commissioners, but the principle of direct responsibility is observed by giving each commissioner "administrative jurisdiction" over institutions in one or more boroughs. The president of the board has charge of all the institutions in the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, the former New York City; another commissioner has charge of the institutions in the former city of Brooklyn and the borough of Queens; a third has charge of the institutions in the borough of Richmond, Staten Island. The three act as a board in forming rules for the government of the department as a whole, in passing the annual budget, and in authorizing building operations.

The expenditure of $1,000,000 for the improvement of buildings in the Department of Public Charities of the former New York City, authorized in May, 1896, has materially decreased the overcrowding in these institutions, particularly the almshouse. Work was begun in the spring of 1897, and pushed energetically during the summer. During the autumn the progress was less and less marked; and, when consolidation took effect, Jan. 1, 1898, but few of the buildings, except at the almshouse, were completed. Some progress was made in 1898; but in April all work was suspended, owing to the opinion of the corporation counsel that the city had reached its debt limit. Work was resumed in June, 1898.

The Charity Organization Society, in co-operation with the relief societies of the city, undertook in February, 1898, to prevent the distress that might otherwise arise from the sudden discontinuance of the free distribution of coal by the Department of Public Charities. About 2,300 applications for coal were considered and investigated, and relief was secured in all cases in which it was considered to be desirable. A full account of this experiment is given in the *Charities Review* for May. The result leaves no doubt as to the ability of private charitable societies to meet the need for this form of outdoor relief in ordinary times.

The society will maintain a training school for charity workers from June 20 to July 30, 1898.

The City and Suburban Homes Company has during the past year erected two large model tenement buildings in New York City,

containing 373 apartments of two, three, or four rooms each. It has also erected 66 detached or semi-detached houses at Homewood, a suburban settlement near Bath Beach, Brooklyn. The houses are sold upon the instalment plan, twenty years being allowed the purchaser to pay for his property. Nearly all of the houses were built upon orders, and are already occupied.

Principally through the efforts of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, a Catholic Boys' Association has been organized in New York City for the purpose of opening boys' clubs in the tenement districts. The object is to keep the boys off the streets at night, to offer them innocent amusements, and to bring them under refined and elevating influences. Two clubs have already been organized, and it is expected that two others will be opened in the near future. The Society of St. Vincent de Paul has also taken steps to assist in finding homes in families for children who may be adopted and for befriending Catholic children discharged from public institutions in the city of New York.

No important legislation affecting the insane or changing the policy of exclusive State care for the insane has been made during the last two sessions. During the past year accommodations for more than 800 patients have been provided in excess of the annual increase in the number of the insane. Plans are being adopted for building comfortable wooden houses for nurses and attendants at a maximum cost for construction and equipment of $300 per capita. The removal of the nurses and attendants from the wards increases the capacity for patients. It is expected that 1,200 beds will thus be provided for during the coming year. Economies in administration have been secured by purchasing jointly food supplies of various kinds for the ten State hospitals. One hospital roasts all the coffee for all the institutions, thus making a large saving and insuring a uniform quality of product at a minimum cost.

On Jan. 1, 1897, a constitutional amendment took effect, providing that the product of the labor of prisoners "shall not be sold to any person, firm, association, or corporation, but may be disposed of to the State or any political division thereof, or for or to any public institution owned or managed and controlled by the State or any political division thereof."

Apparently, no provision had been made by the public authorities

in anticipation of this event, although its coming had been known since November, 1894. It was some time, therefore, before any thorough-going effort was made to provide employment for the prisoners within the restrictions above named. Authorities differ as to the results which have been attained at this date. The New York Prison Association maintains that the operations of the law are very unsatisfactory. The State Commission of Prisons reports that all prisoners in State institutions, except the sick, the crippled, and weak in mind or body, are now employed, and with satisfactory results both to the prison department and to those who under the revised constitution use the prison-made goods. The report of the commission states that on Dec. 1, 1897, of 3,153 convicts in the State prisons, 2,887 were employed, while 266 were sick or unable to work, but not by reason of lack of employment. The prisoners are employed in the manufacture of articles needed in the various State institutions, in the municipal and county charitable institutions, and to some extent in the making of goods required by other municipal or county departments.

The number of inmates of the charitable institutions, hospitals for the insane, and penal institutions in the State on Oct. 1, 1897, as reported by the State Board of Charities, the State Commission in Lunacy, and the State Commission of Prisons, was as follows: —

Charitable Institutions.

Idiotic and feeble-minded	2,032	
Epileptic	597	
Blind	727	
Deaf	1,706	
Dependent children	32,145	
Juvenile offenders	1,985	
Reformatory inmates	1,811	
Disabled soldiers and sailors	1,337	
Hospital patients	7,939	
Aged and friendless persons	6,401	
Almshouse inmates	11,976	
Total in charitable institutions		68,656

Hospitals for the Insane.

In private asylums	840	
In the State Hospitals	20,843	
Total number of insane		21,683

Penal Institutions.

In the 3 State prisons	3,203	
In the Elmira Reformatory	1,525	
In the 6 county penitentiaries	3,768	
In the New York City Workhouse	1,852	
In county jails (awaiting trial)	1,303	
In county jails (convicted)	1,211	
In county jails (detained as witnesses)	11	
In county jails (detained as fraudulent debtors)	39	
Total number of prisoners		12,912
Total number of inmates of all institutions		103,251

NORTH CAROLINA.

BY C. B. DENSON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

At no period in the history of the State have the charitable institutions been so thoroughly prepared for their work or better sustained by liberal appropriations than at the present time.

The Central Hospital at Raleigh has completed an annex of great importance with every modern improvement for 120 patients, making a total capacity of 430 patients.

The State Hospital at Morganton has also an annex for 75 females, and has 719 patients on its rolls.

The Eastern Hospital at Goldsboro now accommodates 430 of the colored insane of the State.

The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and Blind at Raleigh, in the white department, is now used wholly for the blind; but its colored department in another section of the city contains the deaf and dumb and the blind of that race. The total number now in both departments is 322.

The North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb at Morganton now accommodates 196 pupils.

The North Carolina Orphan Asylum at Oxford celebrated the completion, in June last, of a row of brick cottages for the accommodation of boys, and anticipates a similar improvement in behalf of the girls, who now occupy the main structure of what was formerly St. John's College. It has 212 orphans in charge.

The Odd Fellows' Orphanage at Goldsboro has opened a new and more commodious and convenient building; and, in general, it may

be said of the orphanage, controlled by denominational bodies a fraternal order or by private benevolence, as well as of the city hospitals maintained by municipal fund, or private beneficence, that they are all enjoying public favor and improving their equipment.

The State Penitentiary, on account of the policy adopted, to place all offenders at work in the open air, either upon farms or otherwise, has 1,005 convicts in the State farms and 112 in the penitentiary proper. These are all State convicts. This extensive structure, built at a cost of about $2,000,000, is now also utilized in part as a federal prison. As they are required by United States statutes to be confined within the buildings of the penitentiary, a shirt manufactory has been established for their employment; such labor not competing with any such factory within the State limits.

It is difficult to arrive at the correct number of persons living upon public alms, as all the counties are not provided with Homes for the Aged and Infirm, some preferring to pay monthly sums to the poor or their friends. But, as far as can be ascertained from the returns made by the county visitors, the number in the homes may be estimated at 1,550; and those provided for wholly or in part outside of the homes, formerly "poorhouses," may be estimated at 3,625.

The State provides for 105 Confederate veterans in the Soldiers' Home, and expends over $100,000 annually in pensions to her veterans in addition.

The subject of increase of crime is illustrated by the annual report of the attorney-general. The total number of cases tried (criminal) for the year ending July 1, 1897, was 8,812. This is 273 more than for the average of the two preceding years (8,539), which up to that period was the largest ever known. Of these were indicted 4,388 whites, 4,398 negroes, and 26 Indians,—8,099 males and 713 females. There were 5,813 convictions, 1,327 acquittals, 1,551 *nol pros's*, and 121 disposed of otherwise. No case of lynching occurred. There were 29 escapes from jail, and 2 executions.

NORTH DAKOTA.

No report received.

OHIO.

BY JOSEPH P. BYERS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The session of the legislature that came to an end on April 26, 1898, was productive of considerable legislation affecting the institutions of the State and the poor.

For about thirty years the Board of State Charities has recommended over and over again the adoption of custodial care of adult idiots by the State. Now the shadow bids fair to become substance. The new law provides that a custodial department shall be organized under the management of the existing institution for Feeble-minded Youth; that for the accommodation of this department the State shall acquire not to exceed 1,500 and not less than 1,000 acres of tillable land. For the purchase of this land and for the erection of necessary buildings an appropriation was made of $70,000.

Our boards of county visitors, composed of three men and three women in each county named by the presiding judge of the Court of Common Pleas, have, as a rule, done excellent and valuable work. Their duties are largely along the same lines as those of a Board of State Charities, but restricted to the county. Heretofore they received no compensation, and no provision was made for the payment of their expenses. This law has been amended, and provides that hereafter the actual expenses of the members of these boards, not to exceed $50 a year in any one county, may be paid by the county commissioners.

The new State hospital, located at Massillon, built on the cottage plan, will be opened for the reception of inmates during the present summer. Cottages providing accommodations for 400 inmates are already completed, and all of the working and administration departments are ready for use. This institution will be rapidly pushed to completion, the present intention being to provide accommodations for about 1,250 inmates. The superintendent is Dr. A. B. Richardson, who was transferred from a similar position at the Columbus State Hospital.

The law under which the Board of State Charities operates was amended in several important particulars. Under the new arrangement the board will have authority not only to prescribe the forms of records to be used in all State and county institutions and to re-

quire reports from officials in charge, but to extend this jurisdiction over all township trustees and other persons responsible for the administration of funds used for the relief of the poor. It is also provided that plans for State, county, and municipal institutions, including lockups, or for any important addition to these institutions, shall, before their adoption, be submitted to this board for its approval.

The poor laws of the State were codified by a committee appointed at the last Ohio State Conference of Charities and Correction. This codification was submitted to the legislature, and was accepted and enacted into a law without the alteration of a single section except as suggested by the committee. A great many changes in the existing laws were made, the most important of which it is worth while to notice. The word "pauper" is eliminated from the statutes. The duties of township trustees and directors were clearly defined, so as to prevent any conflicting or overlapping. The county poor funds were placed under the full control of the infirmary directors of each county, and the directors made responsible for the same. Formerly the county commissioners had virtual control of this fund, but it was often impossible to fix the responsibility of its administration.

Children under the age of one year may remain in the county infirmary with their mothers. Heretofore the age limit has been three years. The several townships of the State are required to give relief to all persons in their respective limits requiring the same; but, whenever the infirmary directors are satisfied that persons needing relief in the townships should become county charges, then the directors may receive the persons into the infirmary or provide for them temporarily outside of the infirmary. But, in order that the directors shall not run to excess in the assistance of persons outside of the infirmary, they are required to report quarterly to the Board of State Charities the names and full information concerning all persons so maintained by them and the reasons therefor; but in no case are the directors liable for any relief given by the trustees of townships. Under the old law, township trustees might extend relief and certify the bills for such relief to the directors; and the directors were required to pay the same from the county poor funds. Under this system the township officials were virtually expending county money,— a system that has proved to be a very unsatisfactory

as well as an expensive one. In this part of the new law recognition is given to the associated charities or charity organization societies in the State, inasmuch as the township or corporation officers in localities where such societies exist may, instead of making a personal investigation, accept the investigation made by the officers of such society, and may extend relief thereupon. Under the old laws any physician in the State might certify to the fact that he was attending an indigent person, and collect for three visits from the county. Under the new arrangement, township trustees as well as infirmary directors are given authority to contract for a period not exceeding one year, with physicians to furnish the necessary medical relief in the respective localities; and, when such contracts have been entered into, then the county or township ceases to be responsible for the bills of other physicians.

One of the most radical changes contained in the codified laws is in reference to the commitment of insane and epileptic persons to county infirmaries. With the opening of the Massillon State Hospital, and the improvements and additions in prospect at other institutions, it was felt that, with a little extra effort on the part of the State, a realization of our hopes for State care of all insane and epileptic persons might be realized within the next year or two. In order to make sure that this time should not be unnecessarily delayed, the new poor laws provide that on and after June 1, 1900, it shall be unlawful to maintain in any infirmary of the State of Ohio any insane or epileptic person; and all of the laws giving authority to county officials to maintain these persons in the infirmaries, or giving authority to judges to commit them to these institutions, are repealed, the repeal to take effect June 1, 1900.

These are some of the measures that have been adopted. One measure that was not adopted, and against the adoption of which the efforts of the Board of State Charities were exerted, was a law providing for the abolition of all convict labor in the State, including our workhouses. The measure proposed that all of the inmates of the penal institutions of the State should be used in the manufacture of articles consumed by the State. The bill itself was a weak imitation of the present New York law. The efforts of the labor organizations of the State were exerted strongly in behalf of the bill.

OKLAHOMA.

No report received.

OREGON.

BY W. R. WALPOLE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No session of the legislature has been held since last report.
No new charitable work of importance has been established.

A. Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* Are confined in State prison at Salem,— 343 convicts. About 400 prisoners are in 30 county jails.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* Are in city jails. Number of arrests for the year about 7,000.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* Are sent to the State Reform School, now containing 150 inmates. Young boys are placed in charge of the Boys' and Girls' Aid Society till proved incorrigible.

B. Destitutes.

Class 1.—*The Aged and Infirm (sane) Poor.* Are kept at county poor-farms, managed by county authorities in eight counties and by contractors in seven counties. Contracts for boarding paupers are let to individuals in fifteen counties. Number of paupers, about 700.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* A few of these are in county almshouses. The greater number are cared for by private charities. Six of these institutions receive State aid without being under State supervision. Three are mainly supported by private benevolence, and place their inmates in houses as soon as possible.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured.* Are cared for in hospitals. There are three of these in Portland and one at Astoria. None receive State aid.

C. Defectives.

Class 1.— *The Blind.* Those under twenty-five years of age may receive support and education at the Oregon Institute for the Blind

at Salem. Others are at the county almshouses or otherwise cared for by the various counties.

Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* Are sent to the Oregon Deaf-mute School at Salem.

Class 3.— There is no special provision for feeble-minded children.

Class 4.— The insane are kept at State expense in the State asylum at Salem. Average number of inmates, 1,140.

PENNSYLVANIA.

BY JAMES W. WALK, M.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The most important legislation enacted in the field of charities and correction at the recent meeting of the legislature was as follows: (*a*) An act allowing counties and municipalities, providing for the care of the insane in such manner as shall meet with the approval of the Board of Public Charities, $1.50 from the State per week per capita for maintenance; (*b*) an act affixing a penalty to the neglect to provide female attendants for female insane patients in transit; (*c*) an act appropriating $150,000 to enable the trustees of the Harrisburg Hospital for the Insane to replace one-half of their present buildings by such structures as will be better fitted for the purpose.

Bills were introduced to provide for a hospital for the insane, to be conducted under homœopathic management, and for a State institution for the care of epileptics; but both bills failed to pass. A bill was earnestly urged by the governor to provide for a State prison commission to have control over all the State penitentiaries and county jails; but it failed to pass. This bill was modelled largely upon the recent English law, which, it is claimed, has greatly improved the penal institutions of Great Britain.

The most recently established institution of importance under private management is the Home for Epileptics, near West Chester. The Correctional Home for Boys, under the care of the Roman Catholic Church, near Norristown, will soon be opened for inmates. It is destined to do an important work. Several hospitals have lately increased their capacity, and others have been organized, such as the Hospital for Contagious Diseases, for the benefit of those able to pay for their treatment.

In regard to the statistics of the delinquent, destitute, and defective population of this Commonwealth, I refer to the report presented to the Conference at Toronto, where the aggregate number of each group was given, together with the percentage it bore to the total population of the State.

During the year which has passed, since the preparation of that report, there has been but little change in regard to any of these groups.

The number of delinquents, destitutes, and defectives in this State at the present time is approximately as follows : —

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* The number in the three State prisons is nearly 3,400, or about 1-20 of 1 per cent. of the population.

Class 2.— *The Vicious.* The vagrants, drunkards, etc., confined in the two correctional institutions devoted to this class are about 2,000, or 1-30 of 1 per cent.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* The population of the Reform Schools reaches nearly 1,500, or 1-40 of 1 per cent.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *The Aged Poor.* The bulk of the almshouse population consists of old people, and their ratio tends to increase as the insane and other defectives are more and more removed to special institutions.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* Very few of these are now left in the almshouse, and the number of children dependent upon county support is not increasing.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured.* The State continues to maintain several small hospitals, chiefly in the mining regions ; but most of our hospitals are supported by churches or benevolent corporations, assisted by occasional State aid.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *The Blind.* The boarding-schools for the blind (pupils, 300) and the industrial homes for blind men and women (inmates 250) continue their good work.

Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* For this class of defectives there are four State schools, combining both the oral and manual methods of teaching. Aggregate population, about 800.

Class 3.— *The Feeble-minded.* The two institutions now in operation, one in the eastern and one in the western part of the State, provide for about 1,400 of this class; and a number nearly as great remain under county or private care.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* There are six large State hospitals, with nearly 6,600 patients; and 3,000 more are in county or private hospitals.

RHODE ISLAND.

BY REV. JAMES H. NUTTING, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The subject of a probation law in the interest of first offenders against the statute is being considered by the Judiciary Committee, our legislature being in session at the time of this writing.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* We have one State prison for men at Howard, in which are at this date 181 convicts. There are two female State prison convicts confined in the woman's department of the House of Correction. There are in the State five county jails. That of Providence County has 258 inmates, while in the other four are perhaps from 16 to 20 inmates.

Class 2.— *The Vicious* (common drunks, tramps, prostitutes, etc.). Are confined in a State House of Correction at Howard, the present number being 276,— 191 men and 85 women.

Class 3.— *Delinquents.* There are two State Reform Schools at Howard. In the Boys' School are 342 and in the Girls' School 44 inmates.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *Our Poor.* Are in the State Almshouse at Howard and in the various city and town almshouses. In the first are 387 and in the latter possibly 350 inmates, a total of 737. Quite a number of destitute aged persons are in church asylums and other private institutions, which receive no financial aid from the State.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* Are not kept in almshouses after reaching the age of three years. At the Home and School, a State institution located in Providence, there are 134 children. A much larger number are cared for by private charities, orphanages, etc., denominational and other, none of which, so far as I am aware, receive public aid.

Class 3.— *Sick and Injured Poor Persons.* Are cared for in State and private hospitals. The number of these at any one time I cannot name.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 4.— *Insane Persons.* Are not permitted to remain in almshouses, but are provided for in the State Hospital for the Insane and in the Butler Hospital. In the State Hospital for the Insane are 718 persons, and in the Butler Hospital somewhat less than 200 persons.

With respect to the other three classes under the group, their number is not great; and, with the exception of a small school for the blind in Providence, we have not separate institutions for them. They are provided for at public expense by an arrangement with the institutions of Massachusetts.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

BY MRS. M. A. RHETT, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There was no important legislation enacted at the last meeting of the legislature of South Carolina in the field of charities and correction.

During the year 1897 the several penal and charitable institutions established by the State of South Carolina were maintained with the same care and attention which have heretofore been shown.

The South Carolina State Hospital for the Insane has furnished as usual a comfortable home for its unfortunate inmates. The total number of patients under treatment during the year was 1,257. At the close of the year there remained in the institution 933 patients.

A neat and substantial three-story brick structure has been erected for the use of colored male patients.

The State of South Carolina has a large and commodious peni-

tentiary located at Columbia. On Dec. 31, 1897, the prisoners in confinement numbered 723 of all classes and grades. The prisoners are all employed. Some are engaged in cultivating the three State farms near by, which make the institution self-supporting; and others are employed in industrial work within the walls of the penitentiary.

Under recent statutory enactments the judges of the Courts of General Sessions are empowered to sentence prisoners to work upon the public roads, and this is being done in nearly every county in the State. This system seems to work well, and the roads and streets are being greatly improved.

The South Carolina Institution for the Deaf and the Blind is located at Cedar Spring. 179 pupils were enrolled during the year. Of the pupils, 120 were deaf, and 59 blind. The average attendance was 142.

Special attention is given to the teaching of articulation and lip-reading. The experiment of teaching deaf and blind children in the same class has been successfully made in this school. It is believed that this has never before been attempted in any institution in the United States. The per capita cost for support, which includes all running expenses, was only 130.77,—a remarkably low figure for an Institution of so high a class and character.

The officials of the several institutions above mentioned are all appointed by the boards governing said institutions. The directors of the penitentiary and of the Hospital for the Insane are elected by the State legislature. Those in charge of the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb are appointed by the governor of the State.

In the city of Charleston there has been started a Hospital for Colored Persons and a Training School for Nurses. All the staff consists of colored persons.

Two Episcopal Industrial Schools — one white, one colored — were organized a year or two ago, and are succeeding.

Two free kindergartens are in their second year of existence, and are prospering.

The Ladies' Benevolent Society for the Sick Poor has adopted the new methods. It was established in 1813. In 1861 its income amounted to $4,000. The war dissipated its funds. It was reorganized in 1865.

In 1835 Mr. J. M. Hopkins bequeathed to the Ladies' Benevolent

Society $13,020 for relief of "sick and infirm persons of color." The remnant of this fund is still distributed.

All of the Church and benevolent societies co-operate with the Associated Charities.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

BY W. B. SHERRARD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

We have had no meeting of the legislature since my last report.

Nothing new has been undertaken in charitable work during the year.

We have no dependent children. The Children's Home Society gathers them as quickly as they come to the surface, and places them in family homes. There is a general feeling, however, that the State must protect itself from the importation of defective children by Eastern and Middle Western societies.

The population of the State institutions is as follows: Deaf-mute School, 46; penitentiary, 124; Insane Asylum, 451.

SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT.

BY W. J. SIBBISON, PRESIDENT BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

South Dakota's Charitable and Penal Institutions.

For a State which has been a member of the Union less than nine years and whose territory has been settled only from twenty to thirty years, South Dakota has made excellent progress in the establishment of penal and charitable institutions. Twenty years ago only one railroad reached what is now the State, and the wave of immigration which settled the Territory and made the Commonwealth what it is to-day began in 1881. Yet the State has to-day a large modern brick hospital for the insane, costing more than half a million dollars, a granite penitentiary, costing $140,000, a school for deaf-mutes housed in four granite buildings, and a boys' and girls' reformatory with two fine granite buildings. Each of these institutions possesses a large and fertile farm, where the inmates not only are taught skill in agriculture and the raising of live stock, but produce their own food. All are managed by a trained corps of managers,

employing the most modern systems which the thought and skill of the time have evolved.

The Insane Hospital at Yankton has 455 patients, of whom 180 are women. This is an increase of 40 for the year. During the past five years 28 per cent. of those received have been discharged cured. With the exception of the violent and the hopelessly demented, the patients are all employed. There are not to exceed 25 insane patients confined in the State outside of the hospital. The institution has its own steam-heating and electric-light plant.

The penitentiary is at Sioux Falls. There are 130 prisoners, an increase of 20 during the year. This increase has been among United States prisoners chiefly, there being 35 of them. There are no female convicts. During the spring, summer, and fall the prisoners are employed on the State farm, of which 230 acres are owned by the State and 75 acres are rented. All are under cultivation, and there are raised the ordinary field crops and vegetables and feed for live stock. Steers are fattened, and hogs are raised. During the fall and winter the prisoners are employed in getting out and dressing stone for buildings. The State owns a large granite quarry. During the past year the men have prepared the stone for State buildings at Yankton, Plankinton, and Springfield. The work of the prisoners is not allowed to come into competition with outside labor. Owing to a too great leniency with which it had been practised, the parole system was abolished five years ago. There has been no new legislation for five years; and the last legislature refused to enact a bill recommended by the warden, providing that life prisoners should, under certain circumstances, earn a pardon by good conduct.

The reformatory for girls and boys is at Plankinton, and possesses a large granite building and a temporary wooden structure which accommodates the girl inmates, while a new granite dormitory is being built to replace that burned last fall. There are 110 inmates, including 23 girls, and including 12 from North Dakota, which has no reform school and makes use of ours. There is not a fence or a bar in the institution. The conduct of the boys and girls is regulated entirely by a system of rewards, which consists in extra time and facilities for recreation and a certain relaxation in the rules governing correspondence with friends outside. Yet in five years only three have run away. The school has a farm of 1,500 acres. The

boys are also taught printing, while the girls are instructed in household work and sewing.

The school for deaf-mutes occupies four large granite buildings at Sioux Falls, consisting of a dormitory, a workshop, a recitation building, and a barn. There are 45 pupils in attendance, the number being about the same as last year. The work of the superintendent, himself a mute, has been highly successful. A farm of 60 acres, half belonging to the State, is connected with the institution; and the pupils are taught farming.

The State has no school for the blind, but takes charge of the education of its blind citizens. At present there are only three, and they are being educated at the Iowa State School at the expense of South Dakota.

TENNESSEE.

BY MATT HOKE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

We have no reform legislation to report except a bill requiring county jailers or their assistants to sleep in the jail. As 76 of our county jails are not fire-proof, this bill is an important one. Three men were recently burned to death in the Stewart County Jail at Dover at night, the jailer being absent with the keys.

Prison Sunday was observed this year for the first time in this State, through the efforts of Rev. James A. Orman, president of the Board of State Charities. This matter will be looked after from now on.

A new building for the colored insane has just been completed at Bolivar, and all colored patients have been removed there from the Eastern and Central Hospitals for the Insane.

The Tennessee Industrial School is soon to have a $10,000 auditorium and chapel. This is the munificence of Colonel E. W. Cole, of Nashville, the founder of the institution. The grounds are to be beautified by Mrs. Cole.

The new State prison at Nashville is nearly completed, and is an up-to-date prison. Only about 100 convicts remain in the old prison (which has disgraced our State so long), and they will soon be removed.

We again have the convict lease system, although in a modified

form. Convicts may be leased to manufacturers, but the work must be done inside the prison walls.

Our State prison is now self-sustaining. The last legislature appropriated $25,000 for an addition to the Eastern Hospital for the Insane at Knoxville, to accommodate 100 additional patients. It is nearly complete.

The Board of State Charities has appointed County Boards of Visitors in many counties, from which boards we expect great results.

The Board of State Charities has again been hampered by the refusal of the last legislature to appropriate money for the board's expenses.

Rev. P. L. Cobb, chaplain of the Main Prison, has organized night schools, in which more than 200 convicts have been taught to read and write.

TEXAS.

BY REV. W. L. KENNEDY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

No legislation has been enacted in our State in the field of charities and correction for some years past, except the establishment of a Soldiers' Home in the capital of our State. Of course, our soldiers could not be pensioned by the federal government; and, in lieu of pensioning them, it was thought better to establish for them a home where the aged infirm or maimed could be cared for. There are about 150 inmates of the home now.

No public or private charitable associations have been formed for the care of the poor or dependent. I have heard that Rev. Mr. Buckner of the Orphans' Home of Dallas, Tex., has been trying to work up an institution for providing employment for discharged prisoners or convicts,— something very much needed.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* Prison proper, 1,735; Harlem State Farm, 152; contract forces, 1,761; Slum farms, 595; railroad forces, 298; total on hand, 4,541,— decrease of 75 since last report.

B. Group of Destitutes.

The Poor, Destitute, Sick, and Injured. Are cared for by county or municipal law. No wards of State of these classes. Cities have their hospitals, and the inmates are constantly changing.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— School for Blind, at Austin, 146 pupils.

Class 2.— *Deaf-mutes.* 1 at Austin.

Class 3.— *Feeble-minded Children.* Unprovided for.

Class 4.— *Insane.* At three asylums: Austin, 727; San Antonio, 271; number at the Terrill asylum not known.

SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT.

BY REV. R. C. BUCKNER, D.D., OF DALLAS.

The State of Texas has an orphanage with extensive and beautiful grounds, and a family approximating 300. In addition to three large asylums for lunatics, it has a school for the blind and one for the deaf, and a reformatory for boys.

There are thirteen orphan asylums conducted by churches and benevolent organizations. The Methodist Orphanage at Waco, the Odd Fellows' Orphanage at Corrigan, the Buckner Orphanage and the Industrial School at Dallas, are unrestricted by State lines. The latter has 800 children under its watch and care, with 375 within its several buildings. The Methodist Orphanage has about 200. There is a total of at least 2,000 children in the various orphanages in the State, not including those on the outside under their supervision. There is also a Children's Home Society.

In addition to these is the Buckner Home Annex in the city of Dallas, a free sanatorium for deformed, crippled, and otherwise afflicted orphans and destitute children. It is not limited by State lines, but only by its limited means.

There are in Texas several rescue homes.

UTAH.

BY MISS GRACE M. PADDOCK, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

1. The Utah legislature meets once in two years. At the latest session, which took place last winter, the following bills were passed:

A law making the education of the blind, deaf, and dumb compulsory.

A law for the establishment of parental schools for the education and maintenance of incorrigible children between the ages of eight and fourteen. A law was passed permitting school boards throughout the State to maintain kindergartens in connection with the public schools.

A law was passed making marriage illegal where the female is under fourteen and the male under sixteen years of age.

$5,000 was appropriated to establish a hospital at Park City, Utah, to be known as the State Miner's Hospital, free to indigent miners.

A bill was passed allowing all cities of the first and second class to maintain free public libraries.

A bill was passed providing that a prisoner, on being discharged from the State Penitentiary, should receive clothing and $10 in money.

A bill was also passed, providing that a convict should receive a certain part of his earnings. The age of protection was raised from thirteen to eighteen years.

I do not know of any new charitable organization or institution established here lately. A Municipal League has been organized in Salt Lake City for the purpose of getting better laws passed for the city and seeing that those already passed are enforced. The league has not done much as yet. An Anti-saloon League has also been organized.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminal.* Are confined in the State Prison. Those whose sentences do not exceed six months may be confined in the City and County jails.

Class 2.—*The Vicious* (drunkards, prostitutes, vagrants, etc.).

Are confined in the city jails. The Woman's Home Association of Salt Lake City takes charge of any fallen women or girls who are turned over to them by the courts, also of such others as may come to them for assistance. This is an undenominational institution, supported partly by the city and partly by private charity.

The Crittenden Home at Ogden, Utah, also cares for women and girls of this class. This home is unsectarian, and supported mostly by private contributions.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* Incorrigible boys and girls are confined in the State Industrial School, located at Ogden, Utah.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *The Poor in Poorhouses.* Salt Lake County has a good County Infirmary. The inmates are mostly aged and infirm men and women. Some feeble-minded and idiotic of both sexes are confined here, some hopelessly crippled and deformed persons and a few destitute children. The sick and injured may also be sent to this place. The number of inmates there at present is 81. I do not know whether any of the other counties in Utah support poorhouses or not.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* There are only two institutions in the State which I know of for the care of destitute children. The Orphan's Home, an undenominational institution, supported by private charity, and St. Anne's Orphanage, a Catholic institution. The number of inmates now at the Orphan's Home is 16. St. Anne's Orphanage has about 60 inmates at present.

Class 3.— *The Sick and Injured Poor.* In Salt Lake County are sent to the county infirmary. Salt Lake County also gives some outdoor relief to this class. The last legislature passed a bill establishing a State Miner's Hospital at Park City, Utah, free to indigent miners. There are two hospitals in Salt Lake City, which have a few free beds,— St. Mark's, Episcopalian, and St. Mary's, Catholic.

C. Group of Defectives.

Classes 1 and 2.— *The Blind, Deaf, and Dumb.* Are educated at State expense. We have a well-conducted school for the deaf, dumb, and blind at Ogden, Utah. The education of these defectives is compulsory.

Class 3.— Utah makes no provision as yet for the feeble-minded. The only place where they can be sent is the county infirmary.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* The State of Utah supports one insane asylum, located at Provo. Number of patients there at latest report, 269. A decided improvement in the care and management of the insane in our asylum has taken place during the past two years. The number of patients admitted have increased. The number of discharges are 5 per cent. greater than during the five years previous.

VERMONT.

BY REV. J. EDWARD WRIGHT, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature of Vermont meets biennially. It convenes in October, 1898. Hence I have no data for statistical reports.

The following legislation was enacted in 1896: —

A divorce from bed and board forever or for a limited time may, when libel is brought therefor, be decreed for any of the causes for which a divorce from the bond of matrimony may be decreed.

The law against obscene books, pictures, etc., was made more stringent in important particulars. Towns and cities were authorized to appropriate money for the support of incorporated non-sectarian hospitals. The State's attorneys were required to institute proceedings for search and seizure in cases where they had reason to believe that intoxicating liquor was kept for illegal sale instead of awaiting complaints from citizens.

By the gift of Frances Skinner Willing a fine public library has been built and furnished in Manchester, Vt. It is named the Mark Skinner Library. And by the gift of Hon. Homer W. Heaton another ward is being constructed for the Heaton Hospital in Montpelier.

VIRGINIA.

BY WILLIAM FRANCIS DREWRY, M.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The legislature was in session during the past winter. Among the most important measures attempted, but defeated, were the following:

First, revision of the laws regulating the commitment of the insane to public hospitals. At present a person suspected of insanity is examined, and committed by three justices of the peace. The bill presented, but defeated, provided that the examination and commitment of an insane person be made by a county or corporation court judge and two physicians. Second, a bill providing for the enlargement and improvement of the penitentiary. An appropriation of $100,000 was asked for these purposes. The penitentiary buildings, having been constructed years ago, are sadly in need of remodelling to meet the present more modern requirements. A bill providing that all executions take place in the penitentiary was also defeated. There is, however, being built an additional hospital building at the penitentiary, to cost about $3,000.

Appropriations to the various State hospitals for the insane, with the exception of the Central Hospital, Petersburg, for colored insane, were reduced. Formerly the total annual appropriations for all four of the hospitals was $295,000. The legislature reduced this amount to $270,000. In consequence of this reduction and of the failure to increase the appropriation for the Central Hospital, it will be impossible to care for or to admit into the State hospitals all the insane who will apply for admission.

The State Epileptic Commission, appointed two years ago, made its report, which was favorably received by the legislature. The commission recommended that the State establish a colony on the plan of the Craig Colony of New York; that at the meeting of the legislature two years hence a detailed report of plans, estimates of costs, options on suitable property for an epileptic colony, be made by the commission.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Classes 1 and 2.— *Criminals.* There were according to report, Oct. 1, 1897, 1,682 criminals serving sentence in the State Penitentiary, distributed as follows: the penitentiary, 1,645; at the State Farm, which is under management of the penitentiary authorities, 290; working on public roads, 47; white male convicts, 318; white female convicts, 4; colored male convicts, 1,285; colored female convicts, 75. So in a white population of something over 1,000,000 there are 322 convicts, and in a colored population of about 700,000 there are about 1,260 convicts.

Besides the above, I suppose the average number in the jails would reach between 300 and 400. In many cities the chain-gang system of punishment for small offences is in vogue.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* The Reformatory School for Boys, located near Richmond, contains now nearly 60 boys.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *The Poor.* In local homes supported by county or municipal authorities or by private subscription. Impossible to ascertain the number of beneficiaries.

Class 2.— *Destitute Children.* There is no State institution for this class. There are, however, a number of private institutions scattered throughout the State, caring for a large number of these unfortunates.

Class 3.— *Sick and Injured.* In almost every community, certainly in every city, there are hospitals, well equipped, and conducted on the most improved plan, where the indigent sick and injured can get the best and most scientific treatment without cost.

C. Group of Defectives.

Classes 1 and 2.— The School for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind at Staunton, which is under State control. The total enrolment of pupils last year was 170. The Commonwealth appropriates annually to this institution $35,000.

Class 3.— There is no school for feeble-minded children in Virginia that is under State control.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* In State hospitals, 2,450, about 1,600 of whom are white and 850 colored. There are in the various jails in this State about 100 insane persons. This number has accumulated since March 3, 1898. Prior to that date there were no insane outside the State hospitals.

WASHINGTON.

BY THOMAS P. WESTENDORF, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

By an act approved March 7, 1897, the boards of trustees, respectively, of the Washington State Reform School, the Western Wash-

ington Hospital for the Insane, the Eastern Washington Hospital for the Insane, the Washington Soldiers' Home, and the Board of Directors of the Penitentiary, were abolished; and a State Board of Audit and Control was created for the control and maintenance of said institutions. The governor is the *ex-officio* chairman of the board, which is composed of five citizens of the State, four of whom shall serve without compensation, and the fifth to be specially appointed, and to be known as Commissioner of Public Institutions, with salary of $1,500 per annum. This board has the appointment of all officers and employees connected with the several institutions, and under it there has been a general change of employees in all of the above-named institutions.

WEST VIRGINIA.

BY THOMAS C. MILLER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Since my last report no session of the legislature has been held.

The two institutions provided for by the legislature of 1897, a Home for Incurables and an Industrial School for Girls, have been located, the first at Huntington, the other at Salem; and work has begun on each. It is expected that both will be completed and ready for occupancy before the close of this year.

Many local unions of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union have become interested in the Crittenden Home movement, and are aiding in this good work.

The Woman's League of the West Virginia University, recently organized, has for its object the furnishing of better facilities to young ladies attending the university. A prize of $100 is offered for the best recitation, and seven competitors are striving for first honors. The league also hopes to establish a home for lady students soon.

A. Group of Delinquents.

Class 1.— *Criminals.* White: males, 322; females, 2. Colored: males, 216; females, 9; total, 549. All confined at the State Penitentiary at Moundsville.

Class 3.— *Insubordinates.* In Reform School for Boys at Pruntytown, white, 166; colored, 20; total, 186. Expense per capita, about $100 annually.

B. Group of Destitutes.

Class 1.— *Paupers in Poorhouses.* No statistics at hand, but think the average per county, 55 in all, will reach 12. Possibly this may be too high.

Class 2.— *Dependent Children.* The legal provision for this class is only under Class 1, but local societies and the Children's Home Society aid a large number of destitute children. The Home Society has its headquarters at Charleston, W. Va.

C. Group of Defectives.

Class 1.— *The Blind.* Males, 27; females, 26; total, 53.

Class 2.— *Deaf and Mute.* 120; deaf or mute, 10.

The above classes are provided for in *one* school, but the classes separated as much as possible. An effort was made at the last legislature to establish two separate schools; but lack of funds then prevented what will, no doubt, be carried out in 1899. Schools now at Romney.

Class 3.— *Feeble-minded Children.* These will be cared for in the new home now being erected at Huntington.

Class 4.— *The Insane.* In the State hospital at Morgantown, whites, 934; colored, 58.

WISCONSIN.

BY JAMES E. HEG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Inasmuch as there has been no session of the State legislature since April, 1897, there are no new matters of legislation.

The last legislature, that in 1897, besides making a large appropriation for additional buildings at the Home for the Feeble minded at Chippewa Falls, passed a law organizing the Wisconsin State Reformatory for first offenders between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five. The State Board of Control selected a beautiful site on the east side of the river at Green Bay, Wis., and purchased two hundred acres of land, paying $15,000 therefor. Plans and specifications have also been obtained from architects John Charles and A. C. Clas for the entire institution as it will be when fully completed, with a capacity for 600 inmates. James E. Heg, for some years the president of the State Board of Control, being urged by

his associates, accepted the general superintendency of the Reformatory. Contracts have been let for the construction of a part of the cell-room to care for 100 inmates. The buildings will be constructed of brick, faced with granite, and, when finished, will be the finest prison building in the country, though not the largest. It will be modelled after the Elmira Reformatory as much as possible.

The Home for Feeble-minded was opened at Chippewa Falls on June 15, 1897, with a capacity of 240. An additional building has been erected since, and the institution has now capacity for 380. Applications for fully as many more are already on file. Girls under forty and boys under thirty are taken. Nearly all grades of mental deficiency are represented; but, with ten large wards, it has been easy to classify the inmates. The ordinary school methods are in vogue, including kindergarten and music, together with physical culture and manual training, such as housework, laundry work, farming, gardening, cobbling, lace-making, sewing, and carpentry. The institution has 1,021 acres of land, and the buildings now erected are said to be better adapted for the purpose of the institution than those of any similar institution in the United States.

The hospitals for the insane are doing remarkably good work, the number of patients returned to their homes being considerably above 50 per cent. of the commitments. In the entire State the number of cases committed to the hospitals and asylums for the insane approximates 1,000 annually. For the last ten years, since the adoption of the "Wisconsin system" of asylums, the annual average increase of insane in the State has been less than 150, while in the past five years the average accumulation of insane in the State has been only a trifle over 100. This, too, with a death-rate a trifle less than that given in the statistics of most other States.

The State Board has had some trouble the past year with representatives of New York charitable institutions, who have brought orphan children to the State in carload lots and distributed them through church societies. Many of these children were placed in families who were nearly destitute, and some of them will beyond question become charges of the State sooner or later. The State Board will endeavor to guard against future abuse of this sort by asking the next legislature to enact a law similar to that of Michigan.

At the State Public School for Dependent Children at Sparta another agent — a woman — was placed in the field in November.

Such effective work has since been done by the agents that the administration has been enabled to close one of the cottages at the institution. An effort will be made at the next session of the legislature to set aside a cottage for crippled children, a class for whom there is now no place except the poorhouse.

The county of Milwaukee has erected and opened a Home for Dependent Children at Wauwatosa, in order to take the county charges out of the church orphanages and similar institutions, where they had heretofore been kept at a cost of $2.50 per week each to the county. All classes of children, defective or otherwise, are received in the new home, and as many as possible placed in families. It is found, however, that the church orphanages will not give up the children sent to them, preferring to keep them without pay.

There are under State care, at the last report, 4,256 insane in Wisconsin, of whom 3,006 are in the county asylums (which are under State care and supervision). The rest are in the three hospitals for the insane. At the State School for the Deaf are 202 children, and in the Day Schools for the Deaf are about 150 more. These latter are located in various parts of the State, wherever the school authorities can gather five or more deaf children. The State pays $150 a year for the education of each pupil in such schools. The system is popular now, and has its advantages; but its disadvantages are many, and people are beginning to seriously doubt the efficacy of the plan.

126 pupils are enrolled at the School for the Blind, where efficient work is done in the education, industrial and otherwise, of this unfortunate class.

The Industrial School for Boys has 343 inmates. A disastrous fire recently destroyed the shops, kitchen, laundry, heating and lighting plant of this institution; but the work of rebuilding on a much better scale is fast progressing.

The State prison has an average population of 600, of whom 20 are women. It is badly crowded, and some of the convicts have to sleep in the cell corridors, as there are not cells enough for all.

The State Public School for Dependent Children has now 160 children. On November 1 last year there were 256. The number will be reduced as fast as the children are in condition to be placed in families. The Children's Home Society of the State, is doing most excellent work with the smaller children (under three years), who are not received in the State Public School.

WYOMING.

No report received.

ONTARIO.

BY A. M. ROSEBRUGH, M.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

At the last session of the Ontario legislature, held in December and January last, an appropriation was made for the purchase of a farm for the purposes of a reform school or reformatory for the class of boys now confined in the reformatory at Penetanguishene. For several years the Prisoners' Aid Association of Canada has been agitating for a thorough reorganization of this latter institution. The present site is not adapted to the requirements of a reform school. The farm is small, the land is poor, and the buildings do not admit of the cottage system being carried out. It has been suggested by some that the new reform school might also provide for the class of young boys now provided for at the Mimico Industrial School; but we trust this suggestion will not be acted upon until after very mature deliberation. The possibility of contaminating the young and innocent should be reduced to the minimum. The Provincial secretary has also promised to take up the question of a thorough reorganization of the Women's Reformatory and the Girls' Refuge. We are also asking the government to take "Sherborn," Mass., and "Adrian," Mich., as models.

During the past year there has been something of an agitation in Ontario in favor of affording inmates of our penal institutions medical treatment for the cure of inebriety. Largely as an outcome of this agitation, the secretary of the Prisoners' Aid Association was commissioned to visit inebriate institutions and interview specialists with regard to the feasibility of carrying out this suggestion, and also with regard to the general question of providing for the care and treatment of habitual drunkards. The secretary visited three institutions in Boston; the Inebriate Hospital at Foxboro, Mass.; Walnut Lodge at Hartford, Conn.; two institutions on Long Island; Homewood Retreat at Guelph; and Lakehurst Home, Oakville, Ontario; also a Keeley Institute in Toronto.

The secretary's report in brief and in effect is as follows: (1) against the adoption of any proprietary or secret remedies; (2) in

favor of a rational course of treatment similar to that outlined by Dr. Norman Kerr in the last edition of his text-book on "Inebriety and Narcomania"; (3) in favor of the following,— namely, (*a*) a reformatory for the more hopeless class of male inebriates on the farm colony plan, (*b*) a city hospital for a month's treatment of the more hopeful class, and the treatment associated with the probation system, (*c*) enlargement of the Prisoners' Aid Association Home for Girls for the treatment of hopeful cases of female inebriates; (4) in favor of sending the more hopeless cases of female inebriates to the Woman's Reformatory on maximum or indeterminate sentences; (5) in favor of giving medical treatment to the inmates of the Central Prison and Penitentiary; (6) in favor of administering treatment (at the Central Prison, Toronto) through the Prisoners' Aid Association and constituting it a part of the reformatory work of the association; (7) in favor of constituting the cost of treatment a loan only; (8) in favor of the probation system generally, as well as for hopeful cases of drunkenness.

Since the last report, steps have been taken for the formation of a Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction. The first annual meeting will probably be held about May 11. This is an outcome of the meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction held in Toronto last July.

Within the last three years the National Council of Women has been formed in Canada, with local councils in all the important centres of the Dominion. We note the formation of this organization with great satisfaction. Its work is parallel and on a number of questions on the same line as that of the proposed Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction. The members of this society, with the Countess of Aberdeen as president, are taking an active interest in such questions as child immigration, the care of female immigrants, women and girls in factories, the question of police matrons, the care of the destitute poor, the compulsory teaching of scientific temperance in schools, prohibiting the sale of spirituous liquors in grocery stores, and with regard to the custodial care of feeble-minded women and girls under forty years of age.

MANITOBA AND WESTERN CANADA.

No report received.

IV.

Municipal and County Charities.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON MUNICIPAL AND COUNTY CHARITIES.

BY HOMER FOLKS, CHAIRMAN.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction has, up to this time, undoubtedly had far more influence in other directions than in the improvement of municipal charities. Upon legislation, the development of State institutions, the charity organization movement, and child-caring agencies, its influence has been powerful and continuous; but upon the charities that are carried on by our great municipalities its influence has been, in comparison, feeble and intermittent. Only a few mayors, commissioners of charities, or other officials in similar positions have been present at our meetings; and it is doubtful whether many of them have read our Proceedings. The few underlying principles of wise relief-giving, upon which the members of this Conference may be said to have reached practically a consensus of opinion, have been to most of them merely the formulæ of theorists or the ideals of well-meaning but impracticable visionaries.

The Conference has taken up the subject of municipal charities only semi-occasionally, and then as though conscious that vague but formidable difficulties lay in the path of any improvement. Once only, prior to 1896, did we have a committee on the specific subject of municipal charities. The report of that committee, prepared by its chairman, Hon. Seth Low, and submitted at Buffalo in 1888, just ten years ago, is one of the most valuable papers in the literature of the Conference. The subject was taken up again in 1896, and important papers on various phases of city and county relief were presented at Grand Rapids and at Toronto.

Three topics were assigned to the present Committee,— Municipal Charities, County Charities, and Public Outdoor Relief. The twenty-five volumes recording the history of this Conference include many thoughtful papers upon Outdoor Relief. It is doubtful whether we could at present contribute anything new or of special interest on this topic. County Charities have also been given due consideration. It has seemed fitting, meeting as we do in the largest city in the land, to devote this report specifically to the subject of Municipal Charities.

A report upon the administration of charity in the seventy-three cities in the United States which had more than forty thousand inhabitants in 1890 has been prepared, and is submitted herewith. It states briefly the extent to which each city undertakes to relieve its poor; what the city does for the insane, for children, for casual lodgers, and for other classes of dependants. It is submitted in the hope that it affords the data for the beginning of a comparative study of municipal charities in the United States.

As one reads this report, his attention is at once drawn to the fact that in New England, where the township system of local government has prevailed, the relief of the poor has been made a function of each municipality as soon as the growing community cut loose from the township. The New England cities generally make some provision for all the different classes of dependants. In the Central and Western States, however, where the county system has prevailed, cities have grown into the first rank without taking upon themselves the management of charitable institutions. In these States, so far as poorhouses, public hospitals, and insane asylums are concerned, the cities have generally remained simply parts of counties. This is still the case with the second largest city in the country. There are no municipal charities in Chicago. Cook County manages the almshouse, hospital, and insane asylum to which the public dependants from Chicago are sent, and also distributes outdoor relief in the city of Chicago. Outdoor relief, however, usually has not been a county matter; and the cities of the Central and Western States generally have their own overseers of the poor, elected or appointed as distinctly municipal officers, to distribute temporary relief or commit to institutions. Taking the first ten cities in order of size in 1890, eight manage their own charities, while two, Chicago and Buffalo, are simply parts of counties. Of the second ten cities, five manage

their own charities, and five are parts of the counties in which they are situated.

Cities of the first rank, except as above noted, as they have outgrown the township and have approached the county in population and influence, have established their own institutions for the care of the sick, insane, and destitute,— both children and adults. The department of charities has taken its place by the side of the fire, police, health, public works, and other municipal departments. In recent years there has been a strong tendency for the State to relieve both cities and counties of two classes of dependants, each of which has special claim upon the protection and care of the commonwealth, — the children and the insane. Several States have adopted an exclusive State system for the care of destitute children; and a larger number have gradually approached a system of State care for the insane, often requiring the county or city to support the insane in State institutions.

So far as charity has become a distinctly municipal undertaking, it has shared the general character of the administration of the municipality. The cities that have been notorious for inefficiency and corruption have had corrupt and inefficient departments of charities, and untold sufferings have thus been inflicted upon the recipients of so-called public charity, which in some cases might more truly have been called public cruelty. It might be thought that the charities department would be exempt, even in such cities, from the evils that have fastened upon other departments; but there is no evidence that such is the case. Some of the darkest chapters of municipal misrule in Philadelphia were connected with the almshouse and hospital. The scandals connected with the King's County (New York) Asylums for the Insane are still fresh in mind. While these conspicuous instances of theft of public money, appropriated for the care of the sick, attracted wide-spread attention, it is to be feared that a more serious evil — suffering unrelieved, if not aggravated, by neglect — has been far more common. Probably no one seriously disputes Bryce's saying, that the government of cities is the one conspicuous failure of the United States. Nor will those who are acquainted with both city and State charities hesitate to affirm the great superiority of the latter. The greater part of Mr. Low's report upon municipal charities in 1888 was devoted to an explanation as to why city and county charities were inferior to those of the State.

He advanced four reasons,—inferior classification, less adequate appropriations, government by committees of boards of supervisors instead of by independent boards of trustees, and greater interference by partisan politics. The members of this Conference do not need, however, to go to Bryce or other students of municipal government for information as to municipal charities. From what our eyes, ears, and noses have told us, we know that city charities range in character from good to very bad, and that the number of the bad is discouragingly large.

But, if municipal charities have shared in the evils of our cities, they also share in that wonderful revival of interest in city government which we have witnessed in the last few years. In several cities this has passed beyond the realm of discussion, and comprehensive movements for the organization of municipal charities upon a more rational basis have been carried to success. The charities of New York City and of Boston have recently been reorganized. Baltimore secures notable improvements in the provisions of her new charter, taking effect Jan. 1, 1900, which relate to charities.

In one respect, at least, there is uniformity in these movements. Everywhere the tendency is toward a differentiation of the different classes cared for at public expense, and the placing of each distinct class under the management of a separate official responsibility. The lack of classification, one of the evils pointed out in 1888, is being corrected. The destitute, the insane, and the criminal are the three generally recognized classes of public dependants. During the past three years New York City has made an absolute division of these three classes. In the place of its former Department of Charities and Correction, it has a Department of Public Charities and a Department of Correction, and has turned over its insane to the care of the State. More recently Boston has adopted a somewhat similar plan, but has carried the subdivision still farther. It has five departments,—for adult paupers, for destitute children, for the insane, for criminals, and a separate department for investigation, registration, etc. The City Hospital of Boston, it is to be remembered, has long been under an administration entirely separate from that of the Almshouse; and they are thoroughly dissociated in the public mind. Chicago, or rather Cook County, as we have already seen, has its Almshouse, Insane Asylum, and County Hospital under one management, and, as if that were not bad

enough, asks the same Board of Commissioners to build roads and bridges and to perform other important duties.

As to what constitutes the most efficient governing authority of a charities department, there are two distinct tendencies,— one looking toward administration by a board of unpaid trustees, from five to nine in number, similar to boards of trustees of State institutions; the other looking toward a concentration of responsibility in the hands of one, or at most three, salaried commissioners, bringing this department into line with most other city departments. Philadelphia, with its board of five unpaid commissioners, Boston with its three boards each of seven unpaid trustees, Baltimore with its newly authorized board of nine unpaid supervisors of charities, and San Francisco with its unpaid health department in charge of its charities, have chosen the former of these two plans. New York with its three salaried commissioners with separate and sharply defined administrative jurisdiction in different boroughs, St. Louis with its four charitable institutions under the control of a salaried health commissioner, and Cleveland with its salaried director of charities and correction, have chosen the latter plan.

Each of the two plans has its evident advantages and its peculiar dangers. Either plan will secure good results if administered by persons of character and intelligence who have knowledge of, and interest in, the subject of charity. Either plan will fail miserably in the hands of incompetent, indifferent, or dishonest administrators. The merit of either plan lies largely in its influence upon the character of the appointments that are likely to be made under it.

One very important advantage claimed for the unpaid board of trustees is that it lessens the probability of partizan appointments. If the unpaid board were certain to accomplish this result, there could be no doubt as to its desirability. Experience has shown, however, that unpaid boards have not always proved a sure means of escape from the spoils system. There have been unpaid boards of trustees that were neither wise, high-minded, nor non-partisan. In fact, of all administrations, that of an unpaid committee or board composed of party workers whose political service had to receive some slight recognition, is the weakest, flabbiest, and least effective. Accepting the positions for the patronage and public notice involved, such appointees, receiving no salary, do not often feel called upon to give much service in return.

But, while the unpaid board does not offer a sure means of escape from politics, it probably does make good appointments more probable. A few administrations are so hopelessly political that they will appoint none but party workers even to unpaid places. A few mayors there are (may their tribe increase!) who will appoint the best men to either unpaid or paid positions. Between these two extremes there are doubtless many appointing powers who would feel that they could safely appoint persons of special fitness to unpaid positions, but who would fear that they could not make a satisfactory explanation to the party leaders if the positions carried salaries. Another advantage of the unpaid board is its presumably wider knowledge and greater wisdom in passing upon the delicate and complicated questions involved in the administration of charity.

The dangers of the unpaid board arise from a division of responsibility, which too frequently leads to inaction or to hesitation and half-way measures. There is also a very real danger of placing in the hands of volunteers duties more arduous and exacting than they can be expected to perform for any considerable period of time.

The advantages of concentrating power and responsibility in the hands of one salaried official are evidently promptness and the opportunity for executive ability to reap its full fruition without let or hindrance. The plan is in line with the general system of municipal government in this country, so far as we have any system, though directly opposed to that of Great Britain and the Continental cities. In our cities we have freely abolished boards and committees, have curtailed the powers of boards of aldermen and common councils as to appointment and confirmation of heads of departments, and have concentrated responsibility in the hands of a mayor and his appointees. It may be a mistake; but it has been our general policy up to this time. It frankly accepts the risks of partisan appointments, and relies for its ultimate success upon the virtue of holding the one responsible official face to face with his responsibility from day to day, week to week, and month to month.

The practical operations of the plan adopted by New York in 1895, and of that adopted by Boston in 1897, will be watched with very great interest, and may afford data for a more definite conclusion than can now be reached as to their comparative merits. For the present we may profitably withhold decision, and each use his best efforts to make the system under which he finds himself working bear its best fruits.

It would be easy, however, to lay too much emphasis upon the particular form of organization of the department and too little upon the extent of public interest in its work. The recent reorganizations in Boston and New York have led to many desirable results; but is this not due in some measure to an increased public interest aroused in the process of securing the legislative reforms and resulting in a more general willingness to give personal service to public institutions? In fact, almost any change that is brought about by an enlightened public sentiment, breaking through the force of tradition and precedent, is bound to be beneficial. Whatever makes the community better informed about a municipal department makes that community more exacting in its demands and more willing to approve liberal expenditures. However much municipal charities have suffered from poor organization, from the commingling of diverse and unrelated interests, they have suffered most of all from lack of a widespread, intelligent, earnest, persistent, wisely directed public sentiment.

We come back finally, therefore, to those intangible realities which supply the motives of human conduct, and plead for a larger measure of sentiment, and a more general interest in and devotion to the public charities. Regretting the need of almshouses and hospitals, sorry that the occasion ever comes for making them larger, we may and should take pride in their adaptation to the relief of human suffering, in the perfection of their organization, and in the union of humanity and efficiency in their administration. The buildings should not be extravagant; but, from attic to cellar, they should be models of cleanliness and order. The grounds should be kept attractive. But the care shown by buildings and grounds should be simply an indication of the presence of that which is infinitely more important, — a prompt, never-ceasing, and intelligent application of every resource afforded by medicine, hygiene, nursing, and personal attention to the particular needs of each patient, from the moment of his admission until his discharge. In short, from the highest official to the lowest there should be a recognition of the individuality of each patient, and an honest pride in standing as the representative of a great city in the execution of its purpose to relieve the needs of its humblest citizens. Such a charities department, which relieved the sufferings of those who came into its charge as promptly and certainly as our fire departments do their work, would set a much-

needed example to private charities, would stimulate civic pride, and would be held in honor by a grateful community.

The measure of our pride in the well-being of public charities should, however, be the measure also of our shame and self-reproach when they fail to reach their proper standards; and that shame and self-reproach should be so real and so enduring as to elicit in their behalf an earnestness of effort, a sacrifice of individual interest, a determination, and a true patriotism akin to that which answers the President's call as he summons the strong sons of America to the relief of the suffering sons of Cuba.

MUNICIPAL CHARITIES IN THE UNITED STATES.

An Account of the Charitable Activities of the 73 Cities in the United States having a Population of more than 40,000 in 1890.*

Note.— The following report upon municipal charities in the United States was prepared for the Committee on Municipal and County Charities of the National Conference of Charities and Correction for 1898.

Through the kindness of the State Charities Aid Association of New York the information was collected through its office; and the work of compilation has been largely done by the Assistant Secretary of the Association, Miss M. V. Clark. A series of questions was sent to each city, either to some official or to some citizen known to be familiar with the charitable work of the city. After the answers were received, the information was embodied in a brief statement, which was submitted to the original authority for revision and verification. The cities are arranged in the order of their size in 1890.† It is possible that, in compiling information from so many sources, minor errors have been made; but it is believed that the report is substantially accurate and reasonably complete.

The term "outdoor relief" is used in so many different senses by different city authorities that a supplementary table has been

* The population given for 1890 for each of the following cities is taken from the census for 1890. The estimated population for 1898 is taken from estimates furnished to the *World Almanac* by the mayors of the respective cities.

† For alphabetical list of cities see Table of Contents.

prepared, giving a classified statement of the outdoor relief expended by each city in 1897, so far as it has been possible to secure the same. This table is printed at the close of the report of this Committee.

HOMER FOLKS, *Chairman.*

NEW YORK CITY, May, 1898.

NEW YORK, N.Y.

Population, 1890: New York, 1,515,301; Brooklyn, 806,343; Richmond County, 51,693; Queens County, exclusive of North Hempstead and Oyster Bay, 106,055; total, 2,479,392. Estimated, 1898, 3,350,000.

The public charities of New York City are administered by the Board of Public Charities, composed of three salaried commissioners appointed by the mayor, and holding office for six years, unless sooner removed. They are subject to removal by the mayor during the first six months of his term of office, but after that date can be removed only for cause, upon charges preferred and after opportunity to be heard, and on the written approval of the governor.

The three commissioners have exclusive administrative jurisdiction in different boroughs, one in the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx (the former New York City), one in the boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens, and one in the borough of Richmond (Staten Island). Each commissioner has charge over the public charities in the boroughs for which he is appointed, and has the sole power to appoint and remove his subordinate officers.

The public charities in the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx include three small reception hospitals,— Gouverneur, Harlem, and Fordham,— located in the city proper; three large general hospitals,—Bellevue Hospital at 26th Street and East River, the City Hospital on the southern end of Blackwell's Island, and the Metropolitan Hospital near the northern end of Blackwell's Island; the Almshouse (on Blackwell's Island), which includes several hospitals for chronic diseases; and a series of Infants' and Children's Hospitals and Asylums for the Feeble-minded on Randall's Island.

In the borough of Brooklyn are located the former Kings County Almshouse and Hospital, and in the borough of Richmond the Richmond County Almshouse. There are no public charities located in the borough of Queens.

The census of these institutions, counting inmates only, on Oct. 1, 1897, was as follows: —

In the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx.		
Bellevue Hospital	709	
Gouverneur Hospital	40	
Harlem Hospital	42	
Fordham Hospital	26	
City Hospital	695	
Metropolitan Hospital	440	
Almshouse	2,285	
Infants' Hospital	422	
Children's Hospitals and Schools on Randall's Island	856	5,515
In the Boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens.		
Almshouse	1,337	
Hospital	459	1,796
In the Borough of Richmond.		
Almshouse	113	113
Total in New York City		7,424

The total appropriations for these institutions for 1898 were as follows: —

Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx	$1,354,008
" " Brooklyn and Queens	292,960
Borough " Richmond	24,245
Total for New York City	$1,671,213

The hospitals for contagious diseases are under the control of the Department of Public Health.

The Charities Commissioners of the former New York City did not distribute outdoor relief after 1876, except that a certain amount of coal was distributed every winter, and a per capita allowance was given, under a special statute, to the adult blind. Brooklyn ceased to give outdoor relief in 1878. In Richmond and Queens Counties outdoor relief was distributed to a considerable extent up to the time of the creation of the present city of New York, Jan. 1, 1898. The new charter states that no commissioner shall dispense any form of outdoor relief except as specifically provided by the charter, and the only specific provision is for the distribution of money to the adult blind and for the transportation of non-residents.

The general policy of the city in regard to destitute, neglected, and wayward children is to send them to institutions under private control, paying a per capita allowance, usually $2 per week, for their support. There are twenty-five such institutions located in, or receiving children from, the former city of New York, now the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx. In these institutions the city supports an average number of about 15,000 children, paying for their support a total of about $1,600,000, per year. The children, if over two years of age, are in most cases committed by magistrates. The period of detention is determined by the institutions, although under the Rules established by the State Board of Charities, the Commissioner of Public Charities can discontinue the payment of public funds. A similar plan for the care of destitute children prevails in the borough of Brooklyn. In the borough of Richmond, since the passage of the law in 1875 requiring the removal of children from almshouses, destitute children have been boarded in private families, under the oversight of members of the local committee of the State Charities Aid Association. The number of children boarded in families averages about 75. Many of the children are placed in free homes. In the borough of Queens, destitute children were, prior to Jan. 1, 1898, boarded in families by the town Overseers of the Poor; and the plan is being continued in that borough by the Commissioner of Public Charities for the boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens. The children at board number about 30.

The city has for two years maintained a municipal lodging-house on First Avenue near 23d Street. Previous to March, 1896, persons applying for temporary lodging were received in the police stations, and also in small lodging-rooms in the basement of Bellevue Hospital, and, when this became full, the overflow was sent to the Dock House near the hospital at the foot of East 26th Street. Each lodger undergoes a medical examination, is given a bath and a clean bed, and his clothing is fumigated. Inquiries are made as to the circumstances of lodgers; and those who seem to be confirmed vagrants are taken before magistrates, who generally commit them to the Workhouse.

The correctional institutions throughout the present New York City (except the four county jails) are under the Department of Correction, at the head of which is one salaried commissioner appointed for a term of six years. This department includes the city prison

known as the "Tombs," five district prisons, the New York County Penitentiary, the Kings County Penitentiary, and the New York City Workhouse.

All the dependent insane in the State of New York are maintained by the State in State Hospitals, of which there are at present 12, including the Collins State Homœopathic Hospital, which is not yet opened for patients, and the Matteawan State Hospital for Insane Criminals. These Hospitals contained on Oct. 1, 1897, 20,843 patients, 632 of whom were at Matteawan. They are controlled by unpaid boards of managers, of seven members each, appointed by the governor, and are under the supervisory control of the State Commission in Lunacy, a paid body of three members, also appointed by the governor, with the consent of the Senate, and holding office for six years. The dependent insane of New York City are for the most part maintained at the Manhattan and the Long Island State Hospitals, which together accommodate about half the dependent insane in the State.

(For further information concerning the public charities of New York City, consult the printed annual reports of the Department of Public Charities and Correction (last issued in 1893) or the annual reports of the New York County Visiting Committee of the State Charities Aid Association.)

CHICAGO, ILL.

Population, 1890, 1,099,850. Estimated, 1898, 1,800,000.

The county of Cook, not the city of Chicago, is the unit in the administration of charity. The county includes the city and considerable outlying territory. The County Board of fifteen salaried commissioners manages the charitable institutions through officials appointed by the president of the board. These officials are the superintendent of the Cook County Infirmary (Almshouse) and Insane Asylum, the warden of the Cook County Hospital, and the county agent for outdoor relief. Their term of office is one year; but, as the term of the commissioners is two years, the heads of institutions are generally appointed for a second term. The fifteen commissioners all go out of office at the same time. The county owns and controls the above-mentioned institutions and the office of

the county agent for outdoor relief. The expenditures for 1897 amounted to $718,872, divided as follows: —

Cost of County Institutions for 1897.

Hospital	$255,428
Insane Asylum and Infirmary	327,244
County Agency for Outdoor Relief	136,200
	$718,872

Inmates in County Institutions Jan. 1, 1898.

Infirmary	1,482
Asylum	1,445
Hospital	895
	3,822

The county of Cook contributed lump sums as follows to industrial schools: —

St. Mary's School for Boys (R. C.)	$12,000
Illinois Agricultural and Manual Training School for Boys (non-sectarian)	12,000
Chicago Industrial Training School for Girls (R. C.)	10,000
Illinois Industrial School for Girls (non-sectarian)	10,000
	$44,000

The city of Chicago contributed $3,024, being one-half of the amount received from fines for certain offences, in 1897, to the maintenance of three private charitable institutions, and also contributed $12,000 to an infants' hospital, known as St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum.

The city of Chicago does not give outdoor relief, but the county of Cook distributed $136,200 in Chicago in 1897. The city does not maintain a lodging-house. Homeless persons who apply to the city for temporary lodging are allowed to sleep in police stations. The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are both administered by the Cook County Commissioners, who control the jail through the sheriff.

The insane are both a State and a county charge. Counties are allowed their quota at the State Hospitals, but, when required, must retain or take back chronic cases, to make room in State Hospitals for recent cases.

The city maintains no charitable institutions for children. The number of children cared for or disposed of through the police department in 1897 was as follows: —

Infants sent to St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum	47
" " " Foundlings' Home	3
Visitation and Aid Society	20
Humane Society	67
Destitute children for whom homes were found	17
" " sent to Home of the Friendless	77
	231

(For further information concerning the public charities of Chicago, consult article on "The Cook County Charities," by Miss Julia C. Lathrop, member of State Board of Charities, in "Hull House Maps and Papers," pp. 143–161.)

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Population, 1890, 1,046,964. Estimated, 1898, 1,250,000.

The administration of charity in Philadelphia proper (the poor district of Blockley) is separate from that in a few outlying districts of the consolidated city, which is coextensive with the county. The Department of Charities and Correction which has charge of the relief of the poor in the city of Philadelphia proper is an unpaid body composed of five directors appointed by the mayor for five years. The Bureau of Charities is composed of the president of the department and two directors, and the Bureau of Correction is also composed of the president and two directors.

The charitable institutions owned, supported, and managed entirely by the city, the number of their inmates on Jan. 1, 1898, and the expense of maintaining them during the year 1897 are given as follows: —

Philadelphia Almshouse and Hospital	4,068	$503,127.01
House of Correction (semi-penal)	1,611	229,563.60
Municipal Hospital for Contagious Diseases	173	75,134.69
	5,852	$807,825.30

The city makes per capita contributions, which in 1897 amounted to $142,675.19, to the following private charitable institutions and societies: —

The House of Refuge.
Pennsylvania Industrial Reformatory.
Training School for Feeble-minded Children at Elwyn.
Pennsylvania Working Home for Blind Men.
Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.
Charity Organization Society (for Wayfarers' Lodge).
Northern Home for Friendless Children.
St. John's Asylum.
St. Vincent's Home.
Catholic Home for Girls.
Home for Destitute Colored Children.

The city gives outdoor relief only in the form of free medical treatment. The amount expended during 1897 was $12,000 for the salaries of doctors and $6,250 for medicines.

The city does not maintain a lodging-house. Homeless persons who apply to the city for temporary lodging are supplied with tickets valued at 18 cents each, which entitle them to two meals, lodging, and bath at the Wayfarers' Lodges, under the care of the Charity Organization Society. Three hours' work in the wood-yards connected with the lodges is required of each lodger. The city pays the society for these tickets, and expended for them in the year 1897 $1,000.

The insane are a State and county charge. The county shares about equally with the State the expense of the maintenance of each insane person. On Jan. 1, 1898, there were 1,243 insane persons in the Philadelphia Almshouse and Hospital, and 1,733 from Philadelphia in the State asylums at Norristown, Danville, Harrisburg, and Wernersville.

The city maintains no institutions for children under its immediate control except a temporary home in connection with the Almshouse, in which, however, children can be kept only sixty days. Provision is also made for foundlings and sick children in the Philadelphia Hospital. In the Almshouse and Hospital there were 114 children on Jan. 1, 1898. On the same date the number of children supported by the city in private institutions was 349. The State makes appropriations in gross amounts to several private institutions, which receive children from the city.

In 1897 the city placed 13 children in free family homes and 71 in families at board, under the care of the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania, which is, in effect, the agent of the city in its care of destitute children.

During 1897 the city cared for 51 foundlings and abandoned children. Such children are sent to the Nursery Ward of the Philadelphia Almshouse and Hospital, under the care of the Training School for Nurses, and, when a few months old, are placed in boarding homes with country families through the Children's Aid Society. A large majority of these children survive.

Prior to the consolidation of the city of Philadelphia in 1854 the cost of maintaining the poor was a financial matter, to be adjusted by the guardians in their respective wards. By the terms of the Consolidation Act the independent status of the Poor Districts of Germantown, Holmesburg (Oxford and Lower Dublin), Roxborough, Byberry, and Bristol, was not disturbed, nor were they put under the charge of the Department of Charities and Correction, when this department was established by the Bullitt Bill in 1885. These districts, therefore, though a part of the city, elect their own poor directors, levy a tax for the support of their own poor, and transact all business connected with their system of poor relief. The first three maintain almshouses, to two of which poor-farms are attached. They all give outdoor relief, and expend something annually for the support of insane or other individuals in State or private institutions.

ST. LOUIS, MO.

Population, 1890, 451,770. Estimated, 1898, 650,000.

All the city institutions of St. Louis, including both charitable and correctional, public and private, are under the "general visitorial supervision" of a Board of Commissioners on Charitable Institutions, an unpaid body composed of five members appointed for four years by the mayor, subject to confirmation by the council. The direct control of the institutions is separate. The four public charitable institutions are under the Health Commissioner. The Workhouse is under the Board of Public Improvements. The House of Refuge and Correction for Children, which is both charitable and correctional, is administered by a board of managers appointed by

the mayor. The superintendents of public charitable institutions are appointed by the mayor, subject to confirmation by the council. Their term of office is four years. The names of these institutions and their census on Jan. 1, 1898, are as follows: —

City Hospital	636
Female Hospital	244
Insane Asylum	497
Poorhouse	1,529
	2,906

The expense of maintaining these institutions during the fiscal year ending April 1, 1897, was $474,236.46.

The only contributions which the city makes to private institutions are for the care of foundlings. During the year ending April 1, 1897, $16,199.99 was given by the city, at the rate of $12 a month for each child up to the age of three years, to the following institutions: —

Bethesda Foundlings' Home.
St. Louis Colored Orphans' Home.
St. Ann's Widows' Home, Lying-in Hospital, and Foundlings' Asylum.

Outdoor relief is given by the mayor, but only to a very limited extent. The amount given cannot be ascertained because the mayor gives this relief out of his contingent fund, and no separate account is kept. The only other form of outdoor relief is medical relief, given through the city dispensary. The city does not maintain a lodging-house. In cases where the city furnishes temporary lodging to homeless persons, it is done at police station houses.

The insane are a city charge, as the city of St. Louis is not included in a county. There are 1,332 insane persons, of whom 496 are in the insane asylum and 836 in the poorhouse.

The city maintains for children an institution called the House of Refuge and Correction. The class of children received are orphans, neglected and abandoned children, incorrigibles, and juvenile criminals. There were 354 inmates on Jan. 1, 1898; and the expense of maintaining it for the fiscal year ending April 1, 1897, was $47,652.68. The only children supported at public expense in private institutions are foundlings, of whom there were 106 on April 1, 1898. The three institutions which care for the city's foundlings

cared for 352 babies under three years of age during the year 1897. Of these, 157 died, 55 were adopted, and 25 were reclaimed by parents or other relatives. One of these institutions, St. Ann's Asylum, boards-out a few children with wet-nurses. The House of Refuge sends out a few of its children to free homes, but this method has proved unsatisfactory through lack of proper care in placing-out, and lack of supervision of the homes in which children were placed.

BOSTON, MASS.

Population, 1890, 448,477. Estimated, 1898, 550,000.

The institutions for the care of the poor and the insane of the city of Boston are under the control of three boards, composed of seven officials each. These are the Pauper Institutions Trustees, the Trustees for Children, and the Insane Hospital Trustees. The Overseers of the Poor, twelve persons, have charge of outdoor relief. These thirty-three officials are appointed by the mayor. In the case of the Overseers of the Poor the appointments require confirmation by the board of aldermen. The term of office of the members of the three Boards of Trustees is five years; that of the Overseers of the Poor, three years. The charitable institutions owned and controlled by the city with their census on Jan. 1, 1898, and the cost of their maintenance for the year ending Feb. 1, 1898, are as follows: —

Institutions.	*No. of Inmates,*	*Cost for Year.*
Boston Insane Hospital, Austin Farm	338	$69,582.44
" " " Pierce Farm	178	47,621.21
Boston Almshouse, Charlestown Almshouse	137	14,165.06
" " Long Island Almshouse	828	84,097.74
Marcella Street Home (children),	461*	44,879.97
City Hospital	672	192,481.32
Parental School (correctional)	165	22,997.88
House of Reformation (correctional)	158	27,265.36
Temporary Home (women)	26	5,744.46
Wayfarers' Lodge (men)	41	8,427.06
Small-pox Hospital	0	
Galloupe's Island (quarantine)	1	

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions or societies, except to furnish quarters in the

* About two-thirds of these children were out at board in family homes.

Charity Building free of rent to a number of private charitable societies. The maintenance of this building is included in out-door relief. The amount spent by the city for outdoor relief in 1897, including administrative expenses, etc., was $133,104.

The city maintains two lodging-houses, the Temporary Home for Women and Children, established in May, 1862, and the Lodge for Wayfarers, established in January, 1879. The correctional institutions for adults (two houses of correction and a county jail) are under the direction of one Penal Institutions Commissioner.

The insane are a city charge. They were distributed on Jan. 1, 1898, as follows: —

Danvers Lunatic Hospital	70	
Taunton Lunatic Hospital	91	
Worcester Lunatic Hospital	96	
Worcester Insane Asylum	153	
Westborough Insane Hospital	143	
Northampton Lunatic Hospital	1	
Tewksbury Insane Asylum	75	
Bridgewater Insane Asylum	29	
Medfield Insane Asylum	218	
Boston Insane Hospital (not all being city charges)	516	
Insane Boarders	34	
Insane in Almshouse	23	1,449

In addition to the above there are in

Hospital Cottages (epileptics)	12	
Hospital for Inebriates (dipsomaniacs)	67	
School for Feeble-minded	88	167
		1,616

The city maintains institutions for children, which care for the dependent, the neglected, truants, and juvenile offenders. The Marcella Street Home had in its charge on Jan. 1, 1898, 461 children, about two-thirds of whom were out at board in family homes. During 1897 there were but 2 deaths among the children. The two correctional institutions for children are the Parental School and the House of Reformation.

There were 27 children who were being supported at the expense of the city in semi-private institutions on Jan. 1, 1898. These were at the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded, which is partly

supported by the State, and has six trustees appointed by the governor, and at the Perkins Institute for the Blind, which receives grants from the State, and has four trustees appointed by the governor, and at the Kindergarten for the Blind.

In 1897 the city placed 68 children in free family homes and 294 in boarding homes.

Foundlings and abandoned babies are wards of the State. They are taken at once to the City Temporary Home for Women, and immediately put under the care of the State, which boards them with country families. The number of foundlings admitted to the home in 1897 was 14.

The City Hospital of Boston accommodates about 500 patients. It is managed by an unpaid board of five trustees appointed by the mayor, subject to confirmation by the Board of Aldermen. One citizen at large serves five years. The trustees appoint the superintendent, physicians and surgeons, and other officers. The legal claim of each patient is investigated; and the patient or his friends, when able, the town or city where he has a settlement, or the State, is required to pay for his board.

BALTIMORE, MD.

Population, 1890, 434,439. Estimated, 1898, 625,270.

The new city charter, adopted in March, which goes into effect as a whole on Jan. 1, 1900, places the care of all poor, insane, etc., outside the City Almshouse, on a per capita basis, with Supervisors of City Charities to accept charges on the city and supervise their care, wherever they are placed. These officials are appointed by the mayor, subject to confirmation by the city council. They are nine in number, and their term of office is six years, three going out every other year. They are not paid, but have a paid secretary. They replace the present Trustees of the Poor, seven in number, whose term of office is two years.

The only charitable institution owned and maintained by the city is the Almshouse, which includes hospital and insane departments. This will be under the care of the Supervisors of City Charities. The expense of maintaining this institution during the year 1897 was $105,000. This includes some permanent improvements of buildings. The number of inmates Jan. 1, 1898, was 1,342.

The city contributed in 1897, under nominal contracts, to the maintenance of private charitable institutions and societies as follows: —

12 institutions for children, including 3 for colored children	$35,175
9 hospitals	54,000 (about)
21 dispensaries	17,600 (appropriated)
	$106,775

Money was appropriated also to insane hospitals and some other institutions. The contribution is nominally per capita, but actually, except in the case of hospitals, a lump sum.

The total appropriation for "city poor" during 1897 was $383,250. This included $66,200 for reformatories, $88,100 for insane at hospitals, $500 for the deaf and dumb, making a net amount for poor persons proper of $228,450.

The city does not maintain a lodging-house; and homeless persons who apply to the city for temporary lodging are generally sent to the Almshouse, when not able-bodied, and otherwise to the Friendly Inn, a private corporation to which the city gives $1,000 a year under a nominal contract. The Inn requires work in the wood-yard of each applicant for lodgings.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are administered by separate authorities. The insane are partly a city and partly a State charge, but the tendency is toward State care. They have been cared for at the insane department of the Almshouse, at the First State Hospital, at the Second State Hospital, and at a hospital under the Sisters of Charity. Appropriations to these institutions for 1897 were as follows: —

To the First State Hospital	$42,500
To the Second State hospital	2,500
To the Hospital under the Sisters of Charity	42,500
	$87,500

This year the appropriation to the Second State Hospital will be much increased.

The city maintains no institutions for children under its immediate control. Over 400 children are supported by the city in private institutions. The city places no children directly in family homes,

and does not care directly for foundlings and abandoned or orphan babies. The new charter gives to the Supervisors of City Charities considerable power of supervision and control over children who are city charges.

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

Population, 1890, 298,997. Estimated, 1898, 350,000.

The Board of Health, an unpaid body, appointed by the governor for a term of four years, has charge of the institutions for the care of the poor. The cost of maintaining these institutions for the year 1897, and the number of inmates Jan. 1, 1898, were as follows: —

Almshouse	996	$74,654.00
City and County Hospital	504	82,809.12
Pest-house (20 lepers)	23	3,540.33
	1,523	$161,003.45

During 1897 the city contributed in per capita amounts the following sums to the following private institutions: —

Magdalen Asylum	$8,514.50
Boys' and Girls' Aid Society	12,125.00
	$20,639.50

Also for insubordinates at the State Reform Schools at Whittier and Ione as follows: —

Maintenance of pupils at the Preston School of Industry at Ione	$2,547.60
Maintenance of pupils at the Whittier Reform School	7,172.08
	$9,719.68

The city gives no outdoor relief. It maintains no lodging-house, but provides for persons who apply for temporary lodging at the City Prison or the City Receiving Hospital. The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are administered by separate boards. The insane are a State charge.

The city maintains under its own immediate control no institutions for children, nor does it place any children in family homes. Found-

lings are placed in orphan asylums, and paid for by the State. The expense of maintaining dependent children is largely borne by the State. There were in California on Jan. 1, 1898, 808 orphans, 3,808 half-orphans, 478 abandoned children, and 46 foundlings. The number of asylums getting State aid is 35, and the amount of money contributed by the State during 1897 to these private institutions was $333,353.34.

CINCINNATI, OHIO.

Population, 1890, 296,908. Estimated, 1898, 400,000.

The officials who have charge of the relief of the poor are the superintendent of the Infirmary (Almshouse) and six Overseers of the Poor. These officials are appointed for a term of one year by the Board of City Affairs, a board which is the product of recent legislation. It was established by the city legislature to replace the Board of Administration. It is a paid body, and is responsible for the administration of all departments of the city government. The present board was appointed by the mayor; but, when the term of office of the members expires, their successors will be elected by the people. The act establishing the board provided that it should consist of six members, not more than three of whom should be from any one political party, and that two members should be appointed for one year, two for two years, and two for three years. As the terms of the first appointed members expire, their successors will be elected by the people. This will probably render ineffective the bi-partisan provision of the act.

The number of inmates of each of the public charitable institutions on Jan. 1, 1898, was as follows:—

House of Refuge	428
Hospital (male, 200; female, 132)	332
Infirmary	1,001
	1,761

The expense of maintaining these institutions during the year was $275,445.85.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private institutions or societies. The amount spent by the city in outdoor relief during 1897 was $11,946.92.

The city does not maintain a lodging-house, and homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are allowed to sleep upon the floor or in the cells of the police stations.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are administered by different officials. The Police Department, which has charge of the Workhouse, is under the control of a non-partisan Board of Police Commissioners. The House of Refuge is under a separate management; and the Infirmary is under a superintendent and assistant superintendent, appointed as described above. Outdoor medical relief is administered by district physicians, under the direction of a health officer. The insane are a State and county charge, and are maintained at the Longview Insane Hospital.

The city maintains the Cincinnati House of Refuge for Dependent and Delinquent Children. The census on Jan. 1, 1898, was 428, — 304 boys, 124 girls. The city maintains no children at public expense in private institutions. The children placed in family homes by the city during 1897 were as follows: —

From the Infirmary	1
From the House of Refuge	51
	52

None were placed in families to board. The foundlings and abandoned or orphan babies are first turned over to the City Hospital, and those that survive are sent from the City Hospital to the Infirmary. Those that live to be a year old are placed in homes, sometimes by the Infirmary officials, and sometimes through the Children's Home of the City, which is a private institution. The number placed in the City Infirmary during the year 1897 was 10. One of these was indentured, 5 died, and 4 are still in the Infirmary.

CLEVELAND, OHIO.

Population, 1890, 261,353. Estimated, 1898, 385,000.

The relief of the poor by the city of Cleveland is under the charge of the Director of Charities and Correction, who is a salaried officer, appointed by the mayor for a term of two years. This officer is a member of the mayor's cabinet. The salaries of the director and the

secretary of this department are paid from the city's general fund, and are not included in the salaries of officers charged to outdoor relief. The Department of Charities and Correction embraces the City Infirmary, City Hospital, Detention Hospital, outdoor relief, House of Correction, and the city's six cemeteries. The Division of Infirmary includes the Infirmary, the Hospital, and outdoor relief. The superintendent is appointed for a term of two years by the Director of Charities and Correction.

The census of the public charitable institutions on Jan. 1, 1898, was as follows:—

City Infirmary	639
City Hospital	152
	791

The expense of maintaining these institutions during the year was $93,136.93. The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private institutions or societies. The amount spent in 1897 for outdoor relief was $39,853.06, which included salaries of officers, investigators, storekeepers, etc., burials, transportation, supplies issued, and shoes for school children.

The city does not maintain a lodging-house. Homeless persons applying for temporary lodgings are sent to "Bethel," a private charity.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are administered by the same official, the Director of Charities and Correction. The question as to whether the incurable insane are a city or a county charge is now under discussion by the legal advisers of the two corporations. There were on Jan. 1, 1898, 297 insane persons being cared for, under protest, by the city in the Insane Department of the City Infirmary.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports no children at public expense in private institutions, and places no children in family homes. The Cleveland Humane Society takes charge of and finds homes for foundlings. There is now under construction a building to be used as a Children's Hospital, which will be ready for occupancy by July 1, and will have accommodations for 120 patients. Authority has been obtained from the legislature to issue bonds for the construction of a Children's House of Refuge, which may be begun this year.

BUFFALO, N.Y.

Population, 1890, 255,664. Estimated, 1898, 389,000.

The poor are a county charge. The officials who have charge of the relief of the poor in Erie County are the County Superintendent of the Poor and the keeper of the Almshouse. These officials are both elected for a term of three years. The County Board of Supervisors exercises supervision over the administration of the charities of the county. There are no city institutions for the relief of the poor; and the only city official charged with the administration of charity is the Overseer of the Poor, who gives outdoor relief. This officer is elected for a term of four years.

The only county charitable institution is the Erie County Hospital and Almshouse, which is one institution with two departments. The expense of maintaining this institution during 1897 was $125,245.46. It had on Jan. 1, 1898, 747 inmates.

The only institutions to which the city contributes are the hospitals. During 1897 it made per capita contributions to twelve hospitals, amounting to $49,380.78. The county makes per capita contributions to both hospitals and children's homes, and during 1897 contributed $34,275.57 to ten institutions for children and $9,531.42 to ten hospitals. The city gives outdoor relief, and expended from July 1, 1896, to July 1, 1897, $109,626.98, distributed as follows: —

Groceries	$82,750.00
Coal	20,751.53
Wood	74.55
Shoes	403.40
Burials	5,524.00
Sundries	123.50
	$109,626.98

Neither the city nor the county maintains a lodging-house. Homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are sent up for vagrancy or referred to the Charity Organization Society, which has an account with a private lodging-house. A few persons are lodged in the police station, not more than three or four a night.

The county charitable and correctional institutions are administered by different officials, but are both under the supervision of

the County Board of Supervisors. The insane are a State charge, and are maintained in the Buffalo State Hospital. Neither the city nor the county maintains institutions for children. The city supports none at public expense in private institutions, but the county was supporting about 935 in private institutions on Jan. 1, 1898. The County Board of Supervisors employs two agents, one Roman Catholic and one Protestant, to place-out destitute children in family homes. During 1897 there were 71 children placed-out by the Protestant agent, and 41 by the Roman Catholic agent.

NEW ORLEANS, LA.

Population, 1890, 242,039. Estimated, 1898, 300,000.

The city employs no officials to have charge of the relief of the poor except a commissioner, who manages the one charitable institution owned and maintained by the city,— Shakespear's Almshouse for Old People,— the expense of maintaining which for the year 1897 was $7,000, and the number of inmates Jan. 1, 1898, about 80.

The city contributed during 1897 $27,506 in gross amounts to the various private orphan asylums in the city. Outdoor relief is given to a slight extent and somewhat unsystematically by the county, and also by the Charity Organization Society, a private corporation.

The city maintains no lodging-house, and homeless persons applying for temporary lodging are accommodated in private institutions.

The insane are a State charge. They are kept in the police jail until they are transferred to the State Asylum.

The city maintains the Boys' House of Refuge, for delinquent boys, and contributes to the support of the House of the Good Shepherd, for wayward girls. The city does not place-out children in family homes. Foundlings are cared for in St. Vincent's Asylum, a private corporation under the charge of the Sisters of Charity.

PITTSBURG, PA.

Population, 1890, 238,617. Estimated, 1898, 290,000.

The relief of the poor is under the charge of the Department of Charities. The director and his assistants are elected by the city council for a term of four years.

The census of the public charitable institutions on Jan. 1, 1898, was as follows: —

City Home and Hospital	353
Insane Asylums	353
	706

The expense of maintaining these institutions during the year 1897 was $78,585.18.

The city makes no contributions to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. The amount expended for outdoor relief during 1897, including administrative expenses and board of paupers in institutions, was $40,136.62. The city maintains no lodging-house, and homeless persons are sent to the Almshouse and police stations.

The charitable and correctional institutions are administered by different authorities. The insane are a city charge. On Jan. 1, 1898, the city was maintaining 353. Besides those maintained in the city insane asylums, 87 are maintained at State institutions.

The city maintains no institutions for children. The children supported at public expense in private institutions on Jan. 1, 1898, were distributed as follows: —

Concordia Orphan Asylum	11
Home for Colored Children	3
	14

The city sometimes places children in family homes, but did not place-out any in 1897. During the year 1897 only one foundling came under the care of the city; this infant was adopted.

WASHINGTON, D.C.

Population, 1890, 230,392. Estimated, 1898, 280,800.

The Commissioners of the District of Columbia, three in number, and the Superintendent of Charities are charged with the relief of the poor. The commissioners are salaried officials appointed by the President of the United States for a term of four years; the superintendent's term of office is not fixed. The title to all the

real estate of the public institutions is vested in the government of the United States.

The charitable institutions maintained by the city, and the number of inmates on Jan. 1, 1898, with the cost of maintaining them for the year 1897, are as follows: —

Washington Asylum (workhouse, almshouse, and hospital)	639	$60,133
Municipal Lodging-house and Wood-yard	51	4,000
Industrial Home School	128	13,000
Reform School of the District of Columbia	224	46,911
Reform School for Girls	24	9,921
	1,066	$133,965

The city contributes to the maintenance of the following private institutions and societies: House of the Good Shepherd, House of Mercy, St. Rose's Industrial School, Emergency Hospital, Children's Hospital, Homœopathic Hospital, Columbia Hospital, Freedmen's Hospital, Home for Incurables, Eastern Dispensary, Central Dispensary, Woman's Dispensary, Temporary Home for Soldiers and Sailors, Young Women's Christian Home, Women's Christian Association, Hope and Help Mission, Aged Women's Home, Church Orphanage of St. John's Parish, St. Ann's Infant Asylum, St. Joseph's Male Orphan Asylum, Washington Hospital for Foundlings, German Orphan Asylum, Newsboys' and Children's Aid Society, National Colored Home. The contributions are in lump sums, and amounted in 1897 to $239,000. Besides this there were other purely federal subsidies.

The city spent in outdoor relief during 1897 $14,823. The city maintains a lodging-house, which was taken under public control in 1893.

Except in the case of the several branches of the Washington Asylum the charitable and correctional institutions of the city are not administered by the same officials.

The insane, of whom there are about 900, are a District charge. They are maintained at the Government Hospital for the Insane. Feeble-minded children are cared for in outside institutions at the expense of the District.

The city maintains institutions for children who are destitute, dependent, or kept in evil associations. These institutions are: the

Industrial Home School, with a census Jan. 1, 1898, of 120; the Board of Children's Guardians, with 169 in institutions and boarded-out on Jan. 1, 1898, and 244 in free homes not on expense for maintenance.

On the same date the city was contributing toward the support of 684 children in private institutions, exclusive of those in institutions which take both mothers and children, and exclusive of wards of the Board of Children's Guardians, mentioned above. The number of children placed-out to board during 1897 was 69, most of whom were boarded for short periods only.

The city places its foundlings, and abandoned or orphaned babies, with the following institutions: St. Ann's Infant Asylum, the Washington Hospital for Foundlings, the Board of Children's Guardians. During 1897 St. Ann's Infant Asylum had a daily average of 130 children under seven years of age, to whose support the district contributed. Of these, 112 were under asylum care, and 18 were boarded-out. The Washington Hospital for Foundlings had on hand on June 30, 1896, 27 children under three years of age, and received during the year 66. Of these 93 children, all of whom were kept in the hospital, 40 died. The city contributed $6,000 to this institution. The Board of Children's Guardians had on hand during 1896 24 children under two years of age, and received during the year 18. All these children were boarded-out, and 12 died.

DETROIT, MICH.

Population, 1890, 205,876. Estimated, 1898, 320,000.

The City Poor Commissioners, four in number, have charge of the relief of the poor. They are an unpaid body appointed by the mayor of the city for a term of four years, one retiring each year.

The city has no charitable institutions, and sends its dependants to the County House and the County Asylum for the Insane, which are maintained by the county, the city paying about 80 per cent. of the cost on account of having about eight-tenths of the property on which the tax is raised for this purpose. The Wayne County House had on Jan. 1, 1898, 475 inmates. The Wayne County Asylum for the Insane had on the same date 365 inmates.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private chari-

table institutions or societies. During the year ending June 30, 1897, the city spent $144,245 in outdoor relief, a part of which was expended for work upon the city reservoir, for which the laborers were paid in provisions, etc. This year the appropriation was $61,000, with a balance of $14,000 on hand.

The city maintains no lodging-house, but sends some of the homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging to the Wayne County House.

The charitable and correctional institutions are not administered by the same officials. The insane are partly a county and partly a State charge, and are maintained in the Wayne County Asylum, to which they are sent through a judge of probate, at their own request, or at the request of one of the City Poor Commissioners, on a certificate of insanity signed by two reputable physicians.

No children are supported at the expense of the city in private institutions, nor does the city place any children in family homes. Dependent children in Michigan are, in general, wards of the State, and are sent to the State Public School, from which they are placed-out in family homes.

MILWAUKEE, WIS.

Population, 1890, 204,468. Estimated, 1898, 275,000.

The city supports no charitable institutions, the poor being a charge upon the county. The County Board of Supervisors and the Superintendent of the Poor have charge of the relief of the poor. The Superintendent of the Poor is appointed for a term of two years by the Board of Supervisors, who are elected by the people.

The county institutions, with the expense of their maintenance for the year 1897, and their census on Jan. 1, 1898, are as follows: —

County Hospital	145	$21,199.86
County Almshouse	502	31,543.43
Home for Dependent Children	50	

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private institutions or societies.

The county expended in 1897 for outdoor relief $97,626.20, about four-fifths of which was expended in the city of Milwaukee, and on Jan. 1, 1898, was caring for 2,095 families.

The city maintains no lodging-house. Homeless persons are sent to the Rescue Mission, supported by private charity, where they are obliged to work for their lodging and meals.

The insane are partly a county and partly a State charge, and are maintained in two insane asylums, supported partly by the State and partly by the county.

Previous to Jan. 1, 1898, children were kept at private institutions, and paid for by the county at the rate of $2 per week for each child. Now the children who are public dependants are maintained at the Home for Dependent Children, owned and controlled by the county. The county places very few children in family homes.

NEWARK, N.J.

Population, 1890, 181,830. Estimated, 1898, 250,000.

The Superintendent of the City Hospital, the Superintendent of the Almshouse, and the Overseer of the Poor, who have charge of the institutions for the care of the poor and of outdoor relief, are appointed by a committee of five of the common council of the city, subject to confirmation by the common council. Their term of office is at the pleasure of the common council.

The charitable institutions owned and maintained by the city, with their census on Jan. 1, 1898, are as follows: —

City Hospital	103
Almshouse	238
	341

The expense of maintaining them for the year 1896 was $53,400.

The private charitable institutions to which the city contributed during 1896, with the number of beds paid for and the amount paid, are as follows: —

	No. of Beds.	*Amount paid.*
German Hospital	10	$2,500
St. Michael's Hospital	10	2,500
St. Barnabas Hospital	10	2,500
Eye and Ear Infirmary	6	1,500
	36	$9,000

During 1897 the city spent $27,138.97 in outdoor relief.

No lodging-house is maintained by the city, but in severe winter weather tickets for lodgings at private institutions are distributed from the police stations.

The charitable and correctional institutions are not administered by the same officials. The insane are a county charge. Each county elects to care for its own insane in county institutions or to send them to a State institution at the expense of the county. The insane of Newark are maintained at the Essex County Insane Asylum.

The only institution for children owned and maintained by the city is the Home for Truants and Incorrigibles over eight years of age. The city maintains no children in private institutions at public expense, and places-out only children from the city Home mentioned above. The city has no institution for the care of foundlings and abandoned or orphaned babies, and no system for caring for such children.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

Population, 1890, 164,738. Estimated, 1898, 210,000.

The Board of Charities and Corrections is composed of four members and the mayor *ex officio*. It is appointed by the mayor for four years, and serves without compensation. The Superintendent of the Poor, appointed for a term of two years by the Board of Charities and Corrections, has control of the distribution of relief. The only charitable institution owned and maintained by the city is the City Hospital. The city has no almshouse, and those entirely dependent are sent to the County Poorhouse and supported there at the expense of the city. The expense of maintaining the city poor in this institution for the year 1897 was $7,534.49. The expense of maintaining the City Hospital for the same year was $31,789.20. The census on Jan. 1, 1898, was 104.

The only private charitable institution to which the city contributes is the Bethany Home (for foundlings and illegitimate children and their mothers). The sum of $1,500 was contributed to this institution during 1897, besides $3,959.16 paid to the Home for the care of illegitimate children and their mothers sent there to be supported at the expense of the city.

During 1897 the city expended in outdoor relief $25,684.32.

The city maintains no lodging-house. Homeless persons who

apply for temporary lodging are sent to the central police station for two or three nights; and, if they continue to apply, they are arrested for vagrancy, sentenced to the City Workhouse, and put to work in the stone quarry.

The Workhouse is managed by the Board of Charities and Corrections, the police station by the Police Department, and the jail by a county official. The insane are a State charge, and are maintained in State asylums.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and places no children in family homes. Destitute children are sent to the State public school, and from there placed in families. On Jan. 1, 1898, 17 children were being supported at public expense in the Bethany Home. During the year 1897, 39 foundlings were cared for, 6 of whom died. Such children are sent to the Bethany Home, which is superintended by a competent matron. A woman physician and nurses are in constant attendance. Cleanliness and perfect discipline are enforced. Each mother of an illegitimate child is required to care for another child besides her own. After a year at the Home both mother and child have homes found for them.

JERSEY CITY, N.J.

Population, 1890, 163,003. Estimated, 1898, 200,000.

The poor are a county, not a city charge. The county maintains the Almshouse, the Insane Asylum, and other similar institutions. The city contributes to the maintenance of these institutions, but owns and maintains no public institutions other than the Jersey City Hospital, which is controlled by the board of police. Outdoor relief is given by the Poormaster, who is appointed by the board of aldermen. This official holds office under the Veteran Act, and for no specified time.

The appropriation for the maintenance of the Jersey City Hospital during the year 1897 was $20,000. There were 1,696 patients during the year, of whom 72 were in the hospital on Jan. 1, 1898. The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions.

During 1897 $6,000 was spent in outdoor relief. The city maintains no lodging-house. The insane are a county charge, and are maintained in the Hudson County Lunatic Asylum at Snake Hill.

The city maintains no institution for children, and supports none in private institutions; but many children are cared for in the County Almshouse. During 1897 the Poormaster placed about 100 children in family homes. The number of foundlings and abandoned or orphan babies cared for during 1897 was 12. They were sent to the asylum at Snake Hill. The Poormaster reports that there was not a healthy baby among them, and, despite the best care that could be given, they all died.

LOUISVILLE, KY.

Population, 1890, 161,129. Estimated, 1898, 215,000.

The charitable institutions owned by the city, with their census on Jan. 1, 1898, are as follows: —

Home for Aged and Infirm	362
City Hospital	151
Workhouse	156
Eruptive Hospital	1
	670

The superintendents of these institutions are appointed for a term of four years by the Board of Public Safety. The only outdoor relief given by the city is in the form of coal during the severe weather in the winter. This is distributed through the Louisville Charity Organization Society. The city maintains no lodging-house, and homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are usually sent to the Wayfarers' Lodge, under the management of the Louisville Charity Organization Society. The insane are a State charge. The city maintains no institutions for children, and places none in family homes.

OMAHA, NEB.

Population, 1890, 140,452. Estimated, 1898, 150,000.

The relief of the poor is under the charge of the county agent, who is appointed by the county commissioners to serve during the pleasure of the commissioners. There are no charitable institutions owned by the city. The county institutions, all under one super-

intendent, are managed by the county commissioners. Their census on Jan. 1, 1898, was as follows: —

County Poor Farm and Hospital	94
Insane Hospital	36
	130

The expense of maintaining these institutions during 1897 was $20,484.14. The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. The city gives no outdoor relief, but the county spent for this purpose in 1897, $19,514.22. The city maintains no lodging-house, and homeless persons applying for temporary lodging are sent to the police station. The insane are a county charge, and are maintained in the County Hospital and the Insane Hospitals at Lincoln, Hastings, and Norfolk, Neb.

The city maintains no institution for children, supports none in private institutions, places none in family homes, and has no system of caring for foundlings.

ROCHESTER, N.Y.

Population, 1890, 133,896. Estimated, 1898, 175,000.

The officials in charge of the relief of the poor are the Superintendent of the Poor of the county and the Overseer of the Poor of the city. The former is elected, and has charge of the Almshouse. The latter is appointed for two years by the board of aldermen, and has charge of the outdoor relief of the city. There are no charitable institutions owned by the city.

The city contributed to the maintenance of private orphan asylums and hospitals the sum of $38,885.21 in 1897. Contributions are at a per capita rate of $1.50 a week to orphan asylums and $7 a week to hospitals. During the year 1897 the city expended in outdoor relief $49,023.38. The city maintains no lodging-house, but sends transients to the wood-yard, lodging-house, and eating-house established by the Rescue Mission. Applicants are obliged to chop wood for their food and lodging.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are not administered by the same officials. The insane are a State charge, and are maintained in State Hospitals.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and was supporting in private institutions, at public expense, on Jan. 1, 1898, 223 children. Nearly all the children who now become public charges in Monroe County are committed to the Children's Aid Society of Rochester, incorporated in 1895, which places all of its children in families. The county pays the society $1.60 per week for all children who cannot be placed in free homes, and provides the society with two paid agents and a secretary to look after the business, find homes, visit the children, etc. During 1897 the Children's Aid Society placed 20 children in free family homes, and 35 in families to board. During that time 2 children died.

ST. PAUL, MINN.

Population, 1890, 133,156. Estimated, 1898, 160,000.

The public relief of the poor is under the charge of the Board of Control, composed of three members, appointed, one each year, for a term of three years, by the bench of (six) judges of the District Court. The board sits two days in each week, and is paid for part time. The secretary appointed by the board is paid for full time.

St. Paul forms 95 per cent. of Ramsey County, and pays about 97 per cent. of the county taxes. The public charitable institutions are owned and maintained by the city and county. Their census on Jan. 1, 1898, and the expense of maintaining them during the year 1897, were as follows: —

City and County Hospital	132	$36,118.48
Ramsey County House and Poor Farm	72	10,233.28
	204	$46,351.76

The city makes no contributions to the maintenance of private charitable institutions or societies, except to employ the Associated Charities to make all of its investigations, for which it pays the society $600 a year. In 1897 the city expended in outdoor relief $13,813.81. Able-bodied men are required to saw wood to pay for relief granted.

The city maintains no lodging-house. Homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are sent to the "Friendly Inn," where

they earn their board and lodging, or to the police stations, where they may stay from one to three nights. If they cannot give a good excuse for remaining after the first night, they are sent to the Workhouse. None are allowed to remain more than three nights.

The insane are a State charge, and are maintained in State hospitals. Transportation and clothing are paid for by relatives or by the county.

Destitute children are cared for by the State. The city cares for sick children only, of whom on Jan. 1, 1898, there were 20 at the City and County Hospital. No children are supported in private institutions at public expense, and no children are placed in families by the city.

Such foundlings as are not at first cared for by private charitable institutions are taken to the City and County Hospital, where they remain temporarily under the care of the nurses of the Training School, until some private institution takes charge of them. There were 5 such infants cared for at the hospital during 1897, none of whom died.

KANSAS CITY, MO.

Population, 1890, 132,716. Estimated, 1898, 200,000.

The poor are a charge upon the county.

The city maintains no charitable institutions, but has an "Agricultural Commission" on the Pingree plan, the expense of maintaining which during 1897 was about $500.

During 1897 the city contributed in lump sums to private charitable institutions as follows: —

Kansas City Provident Association	$2,000
Helping Hand Institute	1,000
	$3,000

The city gives no outdoor relief, and maintains no lodging-house. Homeless persons who apply for lodging are cared for by the Provident Association and the Helping Hand Institute.

The insane are a State charge.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and supports none at public expense in private institutions. It places-out some children through the Humane Office.

PROVIDENCE, R.I.

Population, 1890, 132,146. Estimated, 1898, 154,000.

The laws of settlement in the State of Rhode Island are so stringent that they are resulting in an increase in the number of State paupers and a decrease in the number of those dependent upon the cities and towns, as a result of the rule that poor persons or their ancestors must have acquired $200 worth of land in the places in which they lived, to gain a local settlement. The number of inmates at the State Almshouse has more than doubled during the last twenty years, while the number of inmates at the Providence Almshouse (Dexter Asylum) has decreased more than one-half.

The Overseer of the Poor, elected by the people for one year, has charge of the distribution of outdoor relief, and, as head of the Poor Department, gives temporary refuge to women and children.

There are no charitable institutions owned, supported, and managed entirely by the city; but there is an endowed institution, "the Dexter Asylum," under the charge of the city, whose superintendent is elected by the board of aldermen, nominally for a yearly term of office, but practically on good behavior. The only contribution made by the city to the support of this institution is to keep the walls of its grounds in order. The only persons eligible to its care are those who have paid taxes on $200 worth of real estate or who are direct heirs of such tax-payers, or apprentices who have served full time at some trade and have been engaged for five years in business for themselves before applying for admission. These restrictions made by the will of Mr. Dexter, who gave the institution to the city, prevent it from meeting the needs of many worthy poor persons, and tie up a large fund to the support of a very few beneficiaries. The only private charitable institution to the maintenance of which the city contributes is the Rhode Island Hospital. A lump sum of $8,000 a year is given by the city, in order to secure treatment of firemen and policemen and the care of all street accident cases, and to meet the expense of the ambulance service. The amount spent by the city for outdoor relief in 1897 was $16,399.

The city at present maintains no lodging-house, but has in its new Charity Building quarters which are to be used for this purpose, but for the fitting-up of which no appropriation has yet been made.

The Overseer of the Poor sends homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging to private lodging-houses chosen by him, the city paying 15 cents a night for each person. Such lodgers are, on the following morning, escorted by policemen to the wood-yard, under the charge of the Overseer of the Poor, where lodgers work to pay for their lodging and breakfast. This wood-yard also furnishes a work basis for some outdoor relief of the resident poor.

The charitable and correctional institutions are not under the same management. The insane have been entirely a State charge since 1885, and all the insane poor of the city of Providence are at the State Hospital for the Insane.

The city maintains no institutions for children under its immediate control, but gives temporary refuge in the Poor Department. No children are supported at public expense in private institutions, and none are placed-out in family homes.

The city does not care for foundlings and abandoned or orphan babies, as the settlement laws of Rhode Island allow the towns and cities to throw such burdens as this upon the State. The State maintains a School for Dependent Children, which was established in 1885.

DENVER, COL.

Population, 1890, 106,713. Estimated, 1898, 170,000.

The poor are a county charge, and there are no city officials who are responsible for their relief.

The only charitable institution owned and maintained by the city is the Steele Memorial Hospital for Contagious Diseases, the expense of maintaining which during 1897 was $4,500.

In 1897 the city contributed $9,000 to the Associated Charities, a private society.

The city gives no outdoor relief, and maintains no lodging-house. Homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are sent to the hospital wards of the city jail.

The insane are a State charge up to the limit of the capacity of the State hospitals. The excess are a county charge; and those from Arapahoe County, in which Denver is situated, are now being sent to a private asylum for the feeble-minded at Pueblo.

The city maintains no institutions for children except the hospital

above mentioned, which is for any child suffering from a contagious disease whose parents wish to send it. The city supports no children in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. Children who are public charges are cared for at the State Home for Dependent and Neglected Children, located in Denver, or by private charitable societies, such as the Children's Home Society, and the various orphanages. The State Home Bill provides for an agent to look after every dependent child, but it is too recently established to be perfected in operation.

INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

Population, 1890, 105,436. Estimated, 1898, 185,000.

The officials who have charge of the relief of the poor are the three County Commissioners, and the Township Trustee, elected for a term of four years. These officials are paid for their services.

The county maintains an Almshouse under the direction of the county commissioners. The average number of inmates is 237, and its annual cost of maintenance $23,000. This institution is supported by the general county tax, and receives poor persons from Indianapolis as well as other parts of the county.

The charitable institutions owned and maintained by the city, with their census on Jan. 1, 1898, and the expense of maintaining them during 1897, are as follows: —

City Hospital	118	$27,767.29
City Dispensary		4,785.13
		$32,552.42

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. Outdoor relief is not given by the city, but by the county, which expended during 1897 for this purpose $7,185.54. The city maintains no lodging-house. Homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are sent to an inn supported by the Charity Organization Society.

The insane are a State and county charge. The insane of Indianapolis are maintained at the county asylum and at one of the four State Insane Asylums.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. The Board of Children's Guardians of Marion County, maintained partly by private charity and partly by appropriations from the county, is composed of six members, appointed by the judge of the Circuit Court. They receive the custody of children by the order of this court, and their doings are subject to its approval. A board appointed by the court has under its charge a Temporary Home in Indianapolis, from which children are placed-out by the Board of Children's Guardians in permanent family homes in the country.

ALLEGHENY, PA.

Population, 1890, 105,287. Estimated, 1898, 125,000.

The Director of the Department of Charities is elected by the city council for a term of four years.

The only public charitable institution owned and maintained by the city is the Allegheny City Home, the expense of maintaining which during 1897 was $34,662.30. The number of inmates on Jan. 1, 1898, was 328, of whom 150 were in the Insane Department, and 178 in the Poor Department.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. During 1897 it expended in outdoor relief $14,895.04. The city maintains no lodging-house, and homeless persons who apply for shelter are lodged in the central station over night.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are administered by separate authorities. The insane are a State charge, and are maintained at the City Home Hospital for the Insane. The city maintains a hospital for children during the summer months, from June 1 to October 1. No children are supported at public expense in private institutions, and none are placed-out directly by the city, the placing-out of children being in the hands of the Children's Aid Society of Western Pennsylvania.

ALBANY, N.Y.

Population, 1890, 94,923. Estimated, 1898, 100,000.

The relief of the poor is under the charge of the Superintendent of the Almshouse and Overseer of the Poor, who is appointed by the mayor for a term of two years.

The only charitable institution owned and maintained by the city is the Almshouse, which on Jan. 1, 1898, had 204 inmates, and cost during 1897, $29,000. The county of Albany maintains its dependants at the Almshouse, and pays 40 per cent. of the expense of running the institution. The city contributed in 1897 the sum of $22,500 to the following private charitable institutions: Albany Hospital, St. Peter's Hospital, Homœopathic Hospital, Child's Hospital, Incurable Hospital.

The amount spent in 1897 in outdoor relief was $12,146. The city maintains no lodging-house, and sends homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging to the police station.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are not administered by the same officials. The insane are a State charge, maintained in State Hospitals.

Dependent children are a charge on the county, which contracts with private institutions for their care, paying $2 a week for infants and $1.74 for other children. The number of children supported by the county in private institutions on Jan. 1, 1898, was as follows: —

Albany Orphan Asylum	106
St. Vincent's Male Asylum	104
St. Vincent's Female Asylum	186
St. Colman's Asylum	95
St. Mary's Home	29
House of Shelter	2
Fairview Home	24
	546

The city places no children directly in family homes, as the placing-out work is left to the asylums. During the year 1897 there was only one foundling under the care of the city, and no deaths. All infants are placed in St. Mary's Home for Infants, where they are cared for by trained nurses, under the supervision of the Sisters of the Episcopal church.

COLUMBUS, OHIO.

Population, 1890, 88,150. Estimated, 1898, 130,000.

Indoor relief is provided in the County Infirmary (Almshouse), governed by a Board of Directors, salaried officials, three in number, who are elected for a term of three years. Outdoor relief is administered by the Director of Charities of the city, a salaried official appointed by the Director of Public Safety for a term of two years.

There are no charitable institutions owned and maintained by the city, nor does the city contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. During 1897, $37,179 was expended in outdoor relief.

The city maintains no lodging-house; and homeless persons are permitted to sleep at the City Prison, or are referred to the Union Mission Lodging-house, where the cost of lodging is 10 cents.

The insane are a State charge, and are for the most part maintained in State hospitals. There is an excess of about 1,400 insane persons over the capacity of the State hospitals, who are maintained in the county infirmaries.

The only charitable institution for children under the immediate control of the city is the Hare Orphan Home for Poor and Dependent Children, a bequest to the city. This home accommodated on Jan. 1, 1898, about 15 children. No children are supported at public expense in private institutions. Occasionally abandoned children are taken to police headquarters. Here they are placed under the care of the police matron, and held until a family home is found for them, or they are sent to the Franklin County Children's Home, which is in the city of Columbus. The general plan in Ohio is to maintain dependent children in County Homes owned and controlled by the county. From these homes children are placed-out in family homes in the country.

SYRACUSE, N.Y.

Population, 1890, 88,143. Estimated, 1898, 133,000.

The poor of the city are relieved by the City Overseer, who is elected for a term of two years. The city contributes about $1.30

per week to the maintenance of its inmates at the County Almshouse. During 1897 $6,000 was contributed.

The only charitable institution owned by the city is the Hospital for Contagious Diseases, controlled by the Board of Health. There were no inmates on Jan. 1, 1898.

The private charitable institutions to which the city contributes are the Old Ladies' Home, the Shelter for Girls, and all the hospitals and orphan asylums. The contributions are in per capita amounts as follows: —

Hospitals	per week,	$4.00	$16,193.24
Orphan Asylums	"	1.50	21,572.26
Old Ladies' Home	"	2.00	2,000.95
Shelter for Girls			390.55
			$40,157.00

The cost of outdoor relief during 1897 was $57,723, which includes labor on the streets and breaking stones, which brought in about $6,000, leaving the actual expenditure of the city for this purpose $51,723. Payment for labor is not made in money, but in poor-orders.

The city maintains no lodging-house, but sends homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging either to the County Almshouse or to a private boarding-house, where the expense is 15 cents a meal and 15 cents for lodging.

The insane are a State charge. The city pays for the examination and for the clothing of the patients, when they are unable to meet that expense. They are maintained in State Hospitals.

The city maintains a Truant School for truant and incorrigible boys. The average number in this school is 17. On Jan. 1, 1898, there were 12 boys, and several were out on parole. The city was supporting about 10 children in private families on Jan. 1, 1898. It placed-out 4 in free homes during 1897, and 10 in families to board. Foundlings and abandoned or orphaned babies are usually cared for at an expense of $4 a week to the city or county in the Women's and Children's Hospital, the House of the Good Shepherd, and St. Mary's Maternity and Infants' Hospital. Children are kept at these institutions until two years of age, and are then transferred to orphan asylums, which are paid $1.50 per week for their care.

WORCESTER, MASS.

Population, 1890, 84,655. Estimated, 1898, 105,000.

The officials who have charge of the relief of the poor are the Superintendents of the Poor, nine in number, six of whom are elected by the city council for a term of three years each, two being elected each year. Three members are *ex officio*, one alderman and two common councilmen, who serve one year each. The institutions owned and controlled by the city are the City Almshouse and the City Hospital. The expense of maintaining the Almshouse during 1897 was $38,000. There were 205 inmates on Jan. 1, 1898.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. The amount expended in outdoor relief during 1897 was $23,467.

The city maintains no lodging-house, but provides tramps with temporary lodging at the two police stations, and feeds them on crackers. The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are administered by separate officials.

The insane are a State or a city or a town charge. Those having settlements in cities or towns of the State are paid for by their place of settlement. Others are supported at the expense of the State. On Jan. 1, 1898, 165 insane persons were charges on the city of Worcester. The acute insane are cared for in the State hospitals, the feeble-minded at the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded at Waverly, dipsomaniacs at Foxboro, and the harmless insane at the Worcester Almshouse.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and does not place-out any in family homes. There are several private Homes in the city, and these care for most of the children who become dependent. The city sends from 40 to 45 children a year to the State Board of Lunacy and Charity. All foundlings and abandoned babies are classed as having no known settlement; and, whenever the Overseers of the Poor are called upon to take charge of such children, they take them to the State House in Boston, where they are turned over to the care of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity.

TOLEDO, OHIO.

Population, 1890, 81,434. Estimated, 1898, 135,000.

The officials who have charge of the relief of the poor are the County Infirmary Directors and the City Infirmary Director. There are three County Infirmary Directors, elected by the people for a term of three years, the term of one director expiring each year. They each receive a salary of $1,000 a year, and pay their own expenses unless on business outside the county. They have full control of the infirmary, appointing the superintendent, matron, etc. The City Infirmary Director is appointed by the common council for a term of one year. He receives a salary of $1,200, and occupies the same relation to the county board as that of a township trustee. All relief in the city and throughout the county is under the direction and control of the three county directors.

No charitable institutions are maintained by the city. The Lucas County Infirmary is supported by a portion of the Dow tax (excise fund). For the year ending Aug. 31, 1897, the portion of the tax applied to the Infirmary Farm was $15,252.23. During that year the city of Toledo had at the Almshouse 72 females and 161 males.

The city contributed as follows to private charitable institutions:

Toledo Humane Society, partly supported by a portion of the dog tax of Lucas County, from which it received during the year 1896–97	$2,255.12
Retreat Mission, partly supported by police court fines from both city and State, received during the last fiscal year, from the State	320.00
from the city	315.00
	$2,890.12

Outdoor relief is not given by the city, but by the county, under the direction of the County Infirmary Directors. The amount expended for outdoor relief in Lucas County for the year ending Aug. 31, 1897, was $31,291.02. Bills are audited by the county commissioners.

The city maintains no lodging-house, but sends homeless persons to the Toledo Humane Society, which lodges and feeds them at the expense of the city, the charge being 10 cents for lodging and 10 cents for each meal. Applicants work on the street one hour for

each meal, and one hour for each lodging, under the direction of the street commissioner.

The insane are a State and county charge, and are maintained at the Toledo State Hospital and the Lucas County Infirmary.

The city maintains no institutions for children, as children are county charges and are maintained in the Lucas County Children's Home, supported by an appropriation made by the county commissioners. This institution cared for 125 children during the fiscal year 1896–97. The city supports no children at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. Foundlings and abandoned and orphan babies are cared for by the infirmary officials at the expense of the County Infirmary Fund. The charter of the Retreat Mission has recently been extended, so as to include the care of such cases in the future.

RICHMOND, VA.

Population, 1890, 81,388. Estimated, 1898, 100,000.

The Superintendent of Public Charities, who is a salaried official appointed by the city council for a term of two years, has charge of the relief of the poor.

The only charitable institution owned and maintained by the city is the Almshouse, the expense of maintaining which during 1897 was $13,500. Its census on Jan. 1, 1898, was 250.

About $10,000 was contributed by the city during 1897 to the following institutions and societies: Richmond Industrial Home, Citizens' Relief Association, Young Men's Business Association, City Mission.

The amount expended during 1897 in outdoor relief was $7,985. The relief was in the form of fuel, shoes, and rations.

The city maintains no lodging-house, and homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are sent to the Industrial Home or to the Almshouse.

The insane are a State charge, and are maintained at the Eastern, Western, South-western, and Central State Hospitals.

The city maintains no institutions for children, but supports some at public expense in private institutions, and also finds some free family homes for dependent children. On Jan. 1, 1898, 18 children

were being supported at the expense of the city in private institutions. Two foundlings were cared for by the city during 1897, and one died.

NEW HAVEN, CONN.

Population, 1890, 81,298. Estimated, 1898, 112,000.

The relief of the poor is under the charge of three commissioners, one of whom is the Superintendent of Charities. This officer is the only paid member of the board. These officials are appointed by the mayor for a term of two years, and all go out of office at the same time.

The Almshouse is the only public charitable institution of the city. The expense of maintaining it during 1897 was $46,000, and it had on Jan. 1, 1898, 380 inmates.

The city contributed during 1897 the following sum in gross amounts to private charitable institutions: —

New Haven Orphan Asylum (Protestant)	$2,000
St. Francis Orphan Asylum (Roman Catholic)	2,000
New Haven Dispensary	1,500
	$5,500

The amount expended in outdoor relief during the year was $12,452.

No lodging-house is maintained by the city; and homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are referred to the Charity Organization Society, which has a wood-yard with a lodging-house attached.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are not administered by the same officials.

The insane are a city charge. On Jan. 1, 1898, the city had about 150 dependent insane persons who were maintained at the Middletown Insane Asylum.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes.

No record is kept of the number of foundlings cared for by the city. Such children, if under four years of age, are taken

to the Almshouse. Those over four years of age are committed to the County Home for Dependent Children, from which they are placed-out in free homes or boarded-out in families. The New Haven County Home had in its care on Jan. 1, 1898, 165 children, 129 of whom were boarding in family homes in the county.

PATERSON, N.J.

Population, 1890, 78,347.

The Superintendent of Outdoor Relief has charge of the relief of the poor. He is appointed by the board of aldermen for a term of two years. The only charitable institution owned and maintained by the city is the Almshouse, which is under the charge of a superintendent appointed by the board of aldermen. This institution had on Jan. 1, 1898, 205 inmates. The expense of maintaining it during 1897 was $17,990.28. County charges are maintained at this Almshouse at county expense.

There is in the city an isolation hospital on the cottage plan, which is under the control of the Board of Health, appointed by the board of aldermen. The city contributes a percentage of the annual tax levy to the Paterson General Hospital and to St. Joseph's Hospital. The contribution for 1897 amounted to $10,750. The city expended in outdoor relief during the year ending March 20, 1898, $18,626.39, of which $1,357 was for burial expenses, and $1,136.89 for coal. The city maintains no lodging-house; and homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are generally sent to the police station or the Rescue Mission (a private society), and occasionally to the Almshouse. The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are administered by different officials, who are appointed by the board of aldermen. The insane are a county charge. Mild cases are sent to the Almshouse, others to the State Hospital at Morris Plains.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and supports none at public expense in private institutions. The Poor-master has authority to place children in families, but received no suitable applications during 1897, and so placed-out none. The establishment of a Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children is under consideration.

LOWELL, MASS.

Population, 1890, 77,696. Estimated, 1898, 90,000.

The officials who have charge of the relief of the poor are the Superintendent of City Institutions, a salaried official, and the Board of Overseers of the Poor, an unpaid body. There are nine overseers, one from each ward of the city. They are elected by their wards for two years, four being elected one year, and five the next. The superintendent is elected by the overseers for a term of four years.

The expense of maintaining the city institutions during the year 1897 was $61,352.58; and the number of inmates on Jan. 1, 1898, was 496.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private institutions. The amount expended in outdoor relief during 1897 was $19,020. The city maintains a lodging-house, which was established in September, 1896. The only correctional institution owned and maintained by the city is the Workhouse, which is connected with the Almshouse, and is controlled by the Overseers of the Poor. The jail and Truant School are county institutions, under the control of the county commissioners.

The insane are a city charge, and numbered on Jan. 1, 1898, 184 persons, 110 of whom were maintained at the Lowell City Farm, and 74 at State institutions.

The city maintains no institutions for children under its immediate control, and places-out none in family homes. On Jan. 1, 1898, 30 were being supported at public expense in private institutions. During 1897 the city cared for 3 foundlings for a very short time, and then turned them over to the State.

NASHVILLE, TENN.

Population, 1890, 76,168. Estimated, 1898, 90,000.

No report received.

SCRANTON, PA.

Population, 1890, 75,215. Estimated, 1898, 110,000.

The Directors of the Poor of the Scranton Poor District, seven in number, are appointed by the presiding judge of Lackawanna County. The only charitable institution owned and maintained by the city is the Almshouse, called the "Hillside Home." There were in this institution on Jan. 1, 1898, 419 inmates. The average number of inmates during the year was 389, and the per capita expense of maintaining them was $1.97\frac{1}{2}$ a week. The city made during 1897 per capita contributions to private charitable institutions as follows:

St. Joseph's Foundling Home	$211.75
St. Patrick's Orphan Asylum	1,013.25
Lackawanna Hospital	41.75
Moses Taylor Hospital	53.00
Home for the Friendless	45.50
	$1,365.25

The city expended in 1897 for outdoor relief, including the appropriations to private charitable institutions, $14,850.97. The city maintains no lodging-house, but provides for homeless persons at the station house or sends them to the Home for the Friendless or other lodging-houses.

The insane are partly a State, partly a county, and partly a city charge. The State pays $1.75 per week for the support of each inmate of the State hospitals. The county on which the inmate is a charge pays the same. The State pays $1.50 per week for all insane inmates of an almshouse, the city the rest. On Jan. 1, 1898, there were in the "Hillside Home" 210 insane persons.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and places-out none in family homes.

FALL RIVER, MASS.

Population, 1890, 74,398. Estimated, 1898, 104,000.

The Overseers of the Poor are five in number, including the mayor *ex officio*. They are appointed by the mayor for a term of four years, one going out of office each year. They serve without compensation, but have a paid agent and office force.

The institutions owned and maintained by the city, with their census on Jan. 1, 1898, are as follows: —

City Almshouse	110
City Hospital	46
City Almshouse Annex	34
	190

The expense of maintaining these institutions during 1897 was $32,166.55. The amount spent in outdoor relief during 1897 was $43,086.86.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions.

The city does not maintain a lodging-house. Homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are allowed to spend the night at the police station.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are not administered by the same officials.

The insane are under the jurisdiction of the State. The city pays the board of those who have a settlement in the city. The number of insane persons on Jan. 1, 1898, who were such charges, was 162. These were maintained in State institutions.

The city does not maintain institutions for children, and does not support them at public expense in private institutions. The city places children in family homes, and during 1897 placed 15 in families to board, none in free homes. Foundlings are turned over to the State. Orphans, up to the age of four years, if they have a settlement in the city, are cared for at the Almshouse. After that age they are placed in private families. Orphans who have no settlement are turned over to the State.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

Population, 1890, 70,028. Estimated, 1898, 87,000.

The Board of Overseers of the Poor is an unpaid body, consisting of five members, elected by the city council for a term of five years, one member being elected each year. The board has a paid secretary. This board appoints the superintendent of the Almshouse. The city physician is appointed by the mayor.

The Almshouse is the only charitable institution owned and maintained by the city. The expense of maintaining the Almshouse during the fiscal year ending Nov. 30, 1897, was $19,380.85. The number of inmates on Nov. 30, 1897, was 120.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. The amount expended in outdoor relief during the fiscal year was $21,985.

The city maintains no lodging-house. Homeless persons who apply to the city for temporary lodging go to the Almshouse, if they are residents of the city. If they are residents of other cities or towns, they are kept at the station houses until other disposition can be made of them. No tramps are harbored.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are not administered by the same officials.

The insane are a State or a city charge according to their settlement. The number maintained by the city on Jan. 1, 1898, was 167. The insane are maintained in the State Lunatic Hospitals, and the mildly insane are boarded in families. During 1897 there were four such persons in families.

The city maintains no institutions for children. On Jan. 1, 1898, 12 were supported at public expense in private institutions. During 1897, 10 children were placed-out in families to board.

ATLANTA, GA.

Population, 1890, 65,533. Estimated, 1898, 118,000.

The city of Atlanta does all its relief work, except furnishing transportation of persons in distress and burial of paupers, through the private charitable organizations to which the municipality contributes. Transportation and burial of paupers are attended to by the city warden.

During 1897 the following private charitable institutions and societies received contributions from the city as follows: —

Grady Hospital	$26,500
Atlanta Charitable Association	3,000
Home for the Friendless	3,000
Home for Girls	1,200
Carrie Steele Orphanage	1,200
	$34,900

Fulton County, in which Atlanta is situated, maintains from the general tax fund an Almshouse, to which any poor person residing in the county can be sent. This institution is administered by the Commissioners of Roads and Revenues of Fulton County. All dependent children from Fulton County, outside of incorporated towns and cities, are maintained by the county at the Home for the Friendless (white) and the Carrie Steele Orphanage (colored), at an expense of $4 per capita per month.

MEMPHIS, TENN.

Population, 1890, 64,495. Estimated, 1898, 109,914.

The three Commissioners of the Poor and Insane Asylum have charge of the relief of the poor, who are a county charge, and are maintained at the Shelby County Poor and Insane Asylum, in charge of a medical superintendent, elected for two years by the County Court, which consists of forty-seven magistrates.

The county also owns and maintains a pest-house for small-pox cases under the charge of a physician elected by the County Court for a term of two years.

The cost of maintaining the Poor and Insane Asylum during 1897 was $22,000, and of the pest-house $2,200. The Poor and Insane Asylum had a daily average of 300 inmates, and the pest-house treated 57 cases of small-pox.

The county does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions, nor does it give outdoor relief.

Neither the city nor the county maintains a lodging-house; homeless persons who apply to the city for temporary lodging are sent to the station house; those who apply to the county, to the Poor and Insane Asylum.

The insane are a county charge, and are maintained in the County Insane Asylum, the census of which on Jan. 1, 1898, was 69.

The city and the county maintain no institutions for children, and support none at public expense in private institutions. Children are received up to the age of fifteen years at the County Poor and Insane Asylum, where they remain until they are placed in family homes by the Shelby County Branch of the State Board.

WILMINGTON, DEL.

Population, 1890, 61,431. Estimated, 1898, 70,000.

The poor are a charge on the county or the State. There are no city officials or city institutions for their care, nor does the city contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. Such institutions receive contributions from the county and the State.

During 1897 about $600 was spent in outdoor relief for coal, which was distributed by members of the council.

The city maintains no lodging-house, and accommodates homeless persons at police stations. The insane are a State charge. The city maintains no institutions for children, and places-out none in family homes.

DAYTON, OHIO.

Population, 1890, 61,220. Estimated, 1898, 85,000.

The City Infirmary Directors have charge of outdoor relief and of the City Infirmary, an institution for the temporary care of the poor, which will be given up as soon as the present appropriation is exhausted. These officials are elected for a term of three years, and receive a salary of $600 per year.

The expense of maintaining the City Infirmary during the year ending Feb. 28, 1897, was $2,224.63. It had Jan. 1, 1898, only two or three inmates. During the year ending Feb. 28, 1897, 87 persons were cared for, at a cost per week of $25 each, or $3.30 per day.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. The amount expended in outdoor relief from March 1, 1897, to Feb. 28, 1898, was $9,834, which was all that was allowed for this purpose. The expenditure for the previous year was about $19,000. This year the Associated Charities took care of the poor during January and February, the appropriation of $8,700 having been practically exhausted before winter began.

The city maintains no lodging-house; but the Associated Charities maintains one during the winter, for men only.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are administered by separate authorities.

The county is supposed to care for the incurable insane, and the State for curable cases. The insane are maintained at the County Infirmary and at the State Insane Hospitals. A law recently enacted provides that after June 1, 1900, no insane person shall be received or kept at any county infirmary.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. Foundlings, of which there are very few, are sent to a private Children's Home or to the County Home, which receives destitute children, and is authorized to place them in families.

GRAND RAPIDS, MICH.

Population, 1890, 60,278. Estimated, 1898, 100,000.

The city of Grand Rapids acts under the county and township system, with some additional powers granted by its charter. The city of Grand Rapids is treated as one township for purposes of poor relief. The township cares for all dependent persons who have acquired a settlement by a residence of one year. The Board of Poor Commissioners, which in Grand Rapids takes the place of the township supervisor, administers outdoor relief, and sends dependent persons to the County Home or to private charitable institutions. These commissioners are appointed by the mayor, two members serving for two years each without salary, and one member serving on an annual appointment, at a salary fixed by the common council, and devoting his whole time to the work as an investigator.

The city owns and maintains no charitable institutions. It pays private institutions for the care and maintenance of such dependants as it may from time to time send to the various homes and hospitals. The city expended in outdoor relief during the year ending April 22, 1898, $13,640.45.

The city maintains no lodging house, and homeless persons are cared for by the county superintendents.

The insane are maintained at the State Asylum at the expense of the county for two years. After that time they become a charge upon the State. The county in which Grand Rapids is situated is considering the advisability of erecting an asylum.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and supports none

at public expense in private institutions. It placed only one child in a free home during the year 1897. Destitute children are State charges. Placing-out work is done very effectively by the county agent, who acts under the general direction of the State Board of Correction and Charities, and also by the State agent of the State Public School for Dependent Children. It is the general policy of the State of Michigan to place all of its dependent children in good homes, where they are adopted by the family and are absorbed into the general population. The State institution for children at Coldwater and that for juvenile offenders are regarded as only temporary homes, and are maintained for the purpose of preparing the inmates for family homes.

TROY, N.Y.

Population, 1890, 60,056. Estimated, 1898, 64,000.

The poor are a charge on the city after a year of residence, and are relieved by the city superintendent of the poor, appointed for one year by the Charities Commissioners. There are six Charities Commissioners. Their term of office is three years. They are appointed by the common council, four being chosen at one election, and two at the other election. The method of electing the commissioners is as follows: each member of the common council votes for one person, and the two candidates receiving the highest number of votes are declared elected. As there are generally sixteen Democratic and ten Republican aldermen, the Board of Charities Commissioners is kept bi-partisan. This system will be changed when the new charter for cities of the second class comes into effect on Jan. 1, 1900. The mayor will then appoint one Charity Commissioner and an Assistant Commissioner, and the Charity Commissioner will appoint a clerk, city physician, overseer of the poor, etc.

The Almshouse is under the charge of the County Superintendent of the Poor, who is elected by the people for a term of three years, and has charge of the poor who have no settlement in the city.

The city owns no charitable institutions, but sends its dependants to the House of Industry (County Almshouse), to which it paid during the year ending March 1, 1898, $12,781.46, or about $1.10 per week for each person.

The amount expended in outdoor relief during the year ending March 1, 1898, was $15,942.12. This amount includes the $1,600 paid as salaries of the six commissioners, the salary of the superintendent of the city poor, the clerk, the three city physicians, office rent, and office expenses.

The city maintains no lodging-house. Homeless persons spend the night in the police stations. The charitable and correctional institutions are managed by separate officials. The insane are a State charge in State Hospitals.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and was supporting at public expense in private institutions on Jan. 1, 1898, 486. The city places-out no children in family homes. The city had in St. Joseph's Home on Jan. 1, 1898, 105 children from one day to seven years old. During 1897, 11 children have died, all of whom were under two years of age; 9 were under one year.

READING, PA.

Population, 1890, 58,661. Estimated, 1898, 90,000.

The poor are a county charge. The Directors of the Poor of the County of Berks, three salaried officials, are elected for a term of three years, one going out of office each year. The Berks County Almshouse is maintained from the general county fund and cost during 1897, $30,799.79. The county gives outdoor relief also, and expended for this purpose during 1897, $9,405.25. The city gives no outdoor relief, except that, when occasion requires it, the Mayor secures contributions of clothing and provisions for deserving cases.

The city maintains no charitable institutions, and makes no contributions to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. The city keeps no lodging-house. Homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are sent to the Hope Rescue Mission, to the Almshouse, or lodged in the station house. The insane are a State and county charge in State Insane Asylums.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. Children who are a county charge are sent to the Home for Friendless Children, where the directors pay their board at the

rate of $1.50 *per capita*. Children over 10 years of age are generally indentured to farmers. During 1897 the county expended $2,464.75 for the board of children in Homes and private families.

CAMDEN, N.J.

Population, 1890, 58,313. Estimated, 1898, 64,000.

No report received.

TRENTON, N.J.

Population, 1890, 57,458.

The Overseer of the Poor and the steward of the Almshouse are appointed by the common council, the steward for three years, the Overseer of the Poor for two years. The Almshouse is the only public institution owned and maintained by the city. On Jan. 1, 1898, it had about 60 inmates; and the cost of maintaining them during 1897 was $7,276.20. The city made in 1897 per capita contributions to private charitable institutions as follows: —

Union Industrial Home for Children	$384.00
St. Francis Hospital	798.50
	$1,182.50

The amount expended during 1897 in outdoor relief was $9,464.73. The city maintains no lodging-house. The insane are a county charge in the State Insane Hospital. The city maintains no institutions for children, and on Jan. 1, 1898, was supporting 8 in private institutions. No children are placed-out in family homes by the city.

LYNN, MASS.

Population, 1890, 55,727. Estimated, 1898, 65,000.

The Overseers of the Poor are six in number. Two are elected each year for a term of three years by the city council. Two members of the Board, the Secretary and the Visitor, are paid. The

charitable institutions owned and maintained by the city, with their average census for 1897, are as follows: —

Lynn City Home	106
Children's Home	26
	132

The expense of maintaining these institutions during the year was $18,421.68. The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. The amount expended in outdoor relief during 1897 was as follows: —

Store supplies and fuel	$12,052.66
Cash allowances	381.50
Board and house rent	113.32
Medicine	1,121.76
	$13,669.24

The city maintains no lodging-house. Homeless persons are sent to the police station for the night.

The administration of the charitable institutions is separate from that of the correctional institutions. The insane are a city charge. There were 130 in State asylums on Jan. 1, 1898.

The Children's Home, maintained by the city for poor and neglected children, has an average census of 26. The city supports no children at public expense in private institutions. Some are placed in free family homes, but none are boarded-out.

LINCOLN, NEB.

Population, 1890, 55,154.

The poor are a county charge, and are maintained at the County Poor Farm, under the direction of the county commissioners.

The city has no public officials nor institutions for the care of the poor, nor does it contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. The amount spent in outdoor relief in 1897 was about $500. The county gives outdoor relief in Lincoln through the general secretary of the Charity Organization Society, who has been appointed the agent of the county commissioners, and to whom all

applications for relief are referred for investigation. Upon the recommendation of this official, relief is furnished at county expense.

The city has no lodging-house, and sends homeless persons either to the police station or to the person who boards the city prisoners. The insane are a State and a county charge.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. Children are cared for by private institutions supported by private charity.

CHARLESTON, S.C.

Population, 1890, 54,955. Estimated, 1898, 65,000.

The officials who have charge of the relief of the poor are as follows: twelve commissioners of the Almshouse for whites, thirteen commissioners of the Ashley River Asylum for the Colored, twelve commissioners of the Orphan House, ten commissioners of the City Hospital, five commissioners of colored orphans.

The commissioners of the hospital and of the colored orphans are appointed by the mayor; the other commissioners are elected by the city council. Their term of office is four years. The charitable institutions owned by the city, the cost of maintaining them during 1897, and their census on Jan. 1, 1898, are as follows: —

Almshouse	76	$7,900
Ashley River Asylum	90	5,000
City Orphan House	246	13,000
City Hospital, including Training School for Nurses, (average)	1,253	22,500
	1,665	$48,400

The city makes annual contributions in lump sums to private charitable institutions as follows: —

Sisters of Mercy Orphan Asylum	$6,000
Shelter Arms Asylum	300
Kindergarten School	200
Jenkins' Colored Orphanage	250
	$6,750

The city gives outdoor relief. There were in 1897, 324 pensioners. The city maintains no lodging-house. The homeless are temporarily lodged at the police station house, and sent the following day to the Almshouse or the hospital. The charitable and correctional institutions are managed by separate boards. The insane are maintained at the State Asylum at Columbia, S.C.

Dependent children in South Carolina are wards of the County Commissioners and are placed by them in families or institutions.

HARTFORD, CONN.

Population, 1890, 53,230. Estimated, 1898, 72,000.

The relief of the poor is under the charge of a bi-partisan Board of Charity Commissioners, composed of six citizens appointed by the mayor and confirmed by the city council, serving without pay for a term of three years. The terms of two members expire each year. The only charitable institution owned and maintained by the city is the Almshouse, which had on Jan. 1, 1898, 292 inmates. The expense of maintaining it during the year ending March 31, 1898, was $40,255.55, of which $10,850 was spent for permanent improvements.

During the year ending March 31, 1898, the city made per capita appropriations to private charitable institutions as follows: —

Hartford Hospital	$9,569.86
Retreat for the Insane	719.00
For the care of orphan and homeless children: —	
Hartford Orphan Asylum	1,785.00
St. Peter's Roman Catholic Church	1,382.00
St. Joseph's Roman Catholic Church	585.00
St. Patrick's Roman Catholic Church	1,137.00
	$15,177.86

The city expended in outdoor relief during the fiscal year, which ended March 31, 1898, $10,582.71. The city maintains no lodging-house; but homeless able-bodied persons who apply to the city for lodging are dealt with by the Police Department and private charities.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are administered by different officials. The insane are a city charge, though the city pays but $2 a week for its dependent insane in the State

Asylum. The deficiency is made up by a State appropriation. On Jan. 1, 1898, the city was maintaining insane persons as follows: —

State Hospital	186
City Almshouse	25
Retreat for the Insane (private)	6
State School for Imbeciles	24
	241

The city maintains no institutions for children. On Jan. 1, 1898, it was supporting 73 in the four orphan asylums, at the rate of $1.50 each per week. During 1897 the city placed no children in free family homes, but placed 12 in families to board. There was but one foundling cared for by the city during 1897, and this child died.

ST. JOSEPH, MO.

Population, 1890, 52,324. Estimated, 1898, 70,000.

No report received.

EVANSVILLE, IND.

Population, 1890, 50,756.

The poor are a charge on the county, and outdoor poor relief is administered by township trustees. The city maintains no charitable institutions. During 1897 the city contributed $2,500 to the Ladies' Relief Association, the Deaconess Hospital, St. Mary's Hospital, and the Christian Home. The amount given by the city in outdoor relief during 1897 was $800, distributed at the discretion of the mayor. The city maintains no lodging-house, and homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are provided for at police headquarters.

The insane are a State charge. The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. Children are supported by the county in homes for both colored and white.

LOS ANGELES, CAL.

Population, 1890, 50,395.

The poor in Los Angeles are a county charge, and are cared for at the County Farm and the County Hospital, the expense of maintaining which is $51,000 a year. There are no city officials who have charge of the relief of the poor, and no charitable institutions supported by the city. The amount estimated to be given to private charitable societies for the year ending July 1, 1898, was $960, but this was increased to $2,640, distributed as follows:—

	Per month.	*Per year.*
Ransome Home	$20	$240
Florence Home	20	240
Rescue Work of the King's Daughters	20	240
California Children's Home Society	20	240
Day Nursery	20	240
Boys' and Girls' Aid Society	20	240
Free Dispensary	50	600
Settlements Association	50	600
	$220	$2,640

The county of Los Angeles expends $30,000 a year in outdoor relief. The city maintains no lodging-house, and refers homeless persons who apply for lodging to the Associated Charities. The insane are a State charge at the Highlands Insane Asylum in San Bernardino County. The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. Destitute children are supported by the State in private institutions.

DES MOINES, IOWA.

Population, 1890, 50,093. Estimated, 1898, 75,000.

The poor are a county charge under the County Board of Supervisors, who are elected for three years. The city owns no charitable institutions, but contributed during the year 1897, $2,500 to private charitable institutions as follows: Home for Friendless Children, $1,000 a year; Mercy Hospital, $1 a day for city cases; Cottage Hospital, $1 a day for city cases.

The city maintains no lodging-house, but cares for homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging in police stations.

The insane are a county charge, and are maintained at the County Asylum. The city maintains no institutions for children.

BRIDGEPORT, CONN.

Population, 1890, 48,866. Estimated, 1898, 66,000.

The Board of Charities is an unpaid body, composed of six members, who are appointed by the mayor for a term of three years, two members retiring each year.

The City Farm House and Farm is the only institution owned and maintained by the city. Its census on April 1, 1897, was 166; and the expense of maintaining it for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1897, was $14,708.23.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. During the fiscal year 1896–97 the city expended $29,402.12 in outdoor relief. The city maintains no lodging-house.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are not administered by the same officials.

The insane are maintained in State institutions as a city charge, at a per capita rate per week. On April 15, 1897, there were 49 insane persons maintained by the city at the Connecticut Hospital for the Insane at Middletown and the Connecticut School for Imbeciles at Lakeville. Dependent children are cared for by the county.

OAKLAND, CAL.

Population, 1890, 48,682.

The poor are a county charge; and poor relief is administered under the direction of the County Board of Supervisors, who are elected for four years. The County Infirmary, maintained by the county of Alameda, combines both a hospital and an almshouse. In the city of Oakland there is a Receiving Hospital owned and main-

tained by the county, but no institutions maintained by the city. The expense of maintaining the County Infirmary during 1897 was $56,319.88, $19,000 of which was expended for permanent improvements. The average daily population of this institution was 240, about 185 of whom were from the city of Oakland. The Receiving Hospital and Insane Annex in Oakland is maintained at county expense, but most of its beneficiaries are residents of Oakland. The expense of maintaining it during the year 1897 was $6,308.53.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions except that the city council gives $1,800 a year to the Associated Charities to be used for office expenses, salaries, etc.

The amount expended during 1897 for outdoor relief was $11,030. This amount represents grants made by the supervisors for supplies for individual cases of need. For burial purposes $2,325.10 was expended. The city maintains no lodging-house, but the Associated Charities has such an institution. Lodging is given also at the City Jail, but no meals. The correctional institutions are administered by the County Board of Supervisors.

The insane are a county charge previous to their commitment; after that, a State charge. They are maintained in five State institutions.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. The expense of maintaining dependent children is largely borne by the State of California. (See statistics in report on San Francisco.)

PORTLAND, ORE.

Population, 1890, 46,385. Estimated, 1898, 81,000.

The poor are a county charge. The only city official who has to do with the relief of the poor is the City Physician, appointed by the mayor for two years. This official has charge of accident cases and contagious diseases.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions, and gives no outdoor relief. Outdoor relief is administered by the county judge.

The city maintains no lodging-house, and homeless persons who

apply for temporary lodging are locked up in the city jail for the night, if they so desire. The insane are a State charge, and are maintained at the Oregon Insane Asylum at Salem.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. Children are sometimes a charge on the county. They are provided for in private institutions, and through them are placed in family homes.

SAGINAW, MICH.

Population, 1890, 46,322. Estimated, 1898, 54,000.

The city poor, *i.e.*, persons who have resided in the city for a year or more, are cared for by the Director of the Poor, who is elected by the Common Council for a term of two years. The expense of maintaining the city poor during the year ending March, 1898, was $17,447. The county poor are under the charge of the Saginaw County Poor Commission, composed of three members, elected by the Board of Supervisors for a term of three years. Both city and county charges are maintained at the County Almshouse. The Superintendents of the Poor of Saginaw County expended during 1897, $1,600 for the temporary relief of transients and other non-resident poor persons in the city of Saginaw. The city pays for public charges at certain private charitable institutions in the city. The names of the institutions and the rates paid are as follows:—

St. Mary's Hospital (R. C.)	$5.00 a week.
Home for the Friendless and Industrial School	
Saginaw Hospital	$5.00 a week.

The insane are maintained as county charges for two years at some private or State institution. After that time they become wards of the State. Neither the city nor the county maintains a lodging-house, and homeless persons who apply for lodging are accommodated at the local police stations maintained by the city.

Dependent children are so far as possible placed-out in family homes. Placing-out work is carried on by the Superintendent and the Agent of the State Public School and the various county agents.

SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH.

Population, 1890, 44,843.

The officials who have charge of the relief of the poor are the Salt Lake County Commissioners, who are elected for two years.

The poor are a county charge, and there are no charitable institutions owned and controlled entirely by the city. During 1897 the city contributed $600 to the Woman's Home Association, and also made a contribution to the Salvation Army for rescue work. Outdoor relief is left to the county.

The city maintains no lodging-house, and homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are given a bed at the city jail or sent to the county commissioners or to some private charity.

The insane are a State charge.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and leaves the work of placing-out children to the county. The number of foundlings and abandoned babies is small, and they are cared for by the county or by private charity.

LAWRENCE, MASS.

Population, 1890, 44,654. Estimated, 1898, 56,000.

The Overseers of the Poor, nine in number, are unpaid officials who are elected annually, all members of the board going out of office at the same time. The clerk of the board and the superintendent of the Almshouse are paid officials who are appointed by the Board of Overseers, and hold office for three years.

The city owns and maintains a Poor Farm, which combines almshouse, hospital, and insane asylum. The expense of maintaining it during 1897 was $53,930.27. The number of inmates on Jan. 1, 1898, was 50.

No contributions are made by the city to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. The city spent nearly $20,000 in outdoor relief during 1897. The city does not maintain a lodging-house, but sends homeless persons who apply for lodging to the Adams Mission, and pays 10 cents for their lodging. The charita-

ble and correctional institutions of the city are administered by separate officials. The insane are a city charge, maintained in the insane department of the Almshouse.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and supports none at public expense in private institutions. Children are cared for temporarily at the Poor Farm, where there are at the present time 10 or 12. The city places-out children in family homes; and during 1897 placed-out 9 in free homes and 4 in families to board. Only 1 foundling was cared for by the city during 1897.

SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

Population, 1890, 44,179. Estimated, 1898, 60,000.

The Board of Overseers of the Poor is an unpaid body, composed of five members,— the mayor and the city physician *ex officio*, and three citizens elected by the city council for a term of three years, the term of one member expiring each year. The agent of the board is a paid official who may or may not be a member of the board. The city physician is appointed by the mayor for a term of three years, and receives a salary.

The charitable institutions owned and maintained by the city, with their census on Jan. 1, 1898, are as follows: —

City Almshouse	74
Asylum	79
Hospital	28
Wayfarers' Lodge	

The expense of maintaining these institutions during 1897 was $24,000. The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. The amount spent in outdoor relief during 1897 was $9,096.74. The city maintains a lodging-house for tramps, with a wood-yard, established in 1894. The number of tramps lodged the first year was 7,559. The number lodged during 1897 was 1,667.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are administered by separate boards.

The insane in Massachusetts are supported by the State, if they have no settlement, otherwise by the city or town of their settlement.

On Jan. 1, 1898, there were 92 insane persons maintained by the city. Such insane persons are cared for at the State Lunatic Hospitals and at the local asylum.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and supports none at public expense in private institutions. It occasionally places-out children in family homes, but placed-out none during 1897.

MANCHESTER, N.H.

Population, 1890, 44,126. Estimated, 1898, 56,000.

No report received.

UTICA, N.Y.

Population, 1890, 44,007. Estimated, 1898, 56,000.

The Board of Charities is an unpaid, bi-partisan body, composed of six commissioners elected for a term of three years, one Democratic and one Republican member going out of office each year. Only citizens whose names appear on the assessment roll for a sum not less than $2,000 are eligible for the office of Commissioner of Charities.

The only institution owned and maintained by the city is the City Hospital, which had on Jan. 1, 1898, 16 inmates, and cost during 1897, $7,332.36.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. The amount expended in outdoor relief during 1897 was $10,387.41. The city maintains no lodging-house, but gives homeless persons lodgings at the police station.

The insane are a State charge at the Utica State Hospital.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. Children are a county charge, and are supported in private institutions at the expense of the county.

HOBOKEN, N.J.

Population, 1890, 43,648. Estimated, 1898, 56,000.

The Committee on Alms consists of five members, one member from each ward of the city. It is appointed by the chairman of the Council. The Overseer of the Poor is appointed by the council for a term of three years.

The poor are a county charge, and are maintained at the County Almshouse, under the control of the board of freeholders, the city paying a per capita rate for the board of paupers it sends. During the year ending April 27, 1898, 84 were sent by the city to the Almshouse.

The city contributes to the maintenance of one private charitable institution,— St. Mary's Hospital,— and last year contributed also to the Helping Hand Coal Club. The city pays the hospital according to the number of city cases accommodated. The amount paid in 1897 was $3,500. This year $300 was contributed to the Helping Hand Coal Club.

During the year ending April 27, 1898, the amount spent for outdoor relief was distributed as follows: —

Groceries (1,620 orders)	$4,057.20
Interments	294.50
Coal	73.25
Bread (7,375 tickets)	295.00
Special medical assistance	30.00
Care of lost and abandoned children	86.60
Miscellaneous	417.04
	$5,253.59

The city maintains no lodging-house. Non-residents who apply for temporary lodging are kept in emergency cases at a hotel until proper arrangements are made for their transportation to their last place of residence. Tramps are frequently accommodated at the police headquarters, given a meal, and treated according to the circumstances of the case.

The insane are a county charge, under the orders of the board of freeholders. They are maintained at the insane asylum at Snake Hill.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none

at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes. Foundlings are placed in the care of the police station matron, who cares for them for three days. If not reclaimed by that time, they are sent to the Almshouse at Snake Hill. The number of foundlings cared for by the city during 1897 was four, two of whom were reclaimed by their mothers.

SAVANNAH, GA.

Population, 1890, 43,189. Estimated, 1898, 65,000.

There are no city officials or city institutions for the care of the poor, but the city contributed during 1897, $10,800 to the maintenance of the following private charitable societies: City Hospital, St. Joseph's Infirmary, and Georgia Infirmary (colored).

The city gives no outdoor relief, leaving this matter to a private charitable society. The city maintains no lodging-house, homeless persons being accommodated at the police barracks. The insane are a State charge at the Georgia State Asylum.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and places-out none in family homes.

SEATTLE, WASH.

Population, 1890, 42,837. Estimated, 1898, 85,000.

The poor are a county charge under the Board of County Commissioners, the members of which are elected for two years. The county maintains a hospital and poor farm combined, the expense of maintaining which, during the year ending June 30, 1897, was $10,769.82. There were in the King County Hospital on July 1, 1897, 61 inmates,—55 males and 6 females.

The county contributes to the maintenance of private charitable institutions to a very limited extent, and not systematically. During 1897 it is estimated that $250 was expended by the county for such purposes. The county gave outdoor relief for the year ending June 30, 1897, to the amount of $8,347.02. The city of Seattle maintains no lodging-house, but made some arrangement with the

Salvation Army in November, 1897, and sends homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging to the Salvation Army Barracks. Both the charitable and correctional institutions of the county are under the control of the Board of County Commissioners. The insane are a State charge, and the State has two hospitals for the care and treatment of the dependent insane.

The State maintains for children a Reform School and a School for Defective Youth. The county was supporting 7 children in private institutions on Jan. 1, 1898, for whom it was paying at the rate of $6 per month. The county placed-out no children in free homes during 1897, but placed 3 to board in family homes for a few months. Foundlings and abandoned or orphaned babies are not cared for by the county commissioners, except that the county pays for their burial. There is a private Foundling Asylum in Seattle and also a private Children's Home supported by private charity.

PEORIA, ILL.

Population, 1890, 41,024. Estimated, 1898, 69,000.

The poor are a county charge. The city has no officials charged with the relief of the poor, owns no charitable institutions, and contributes nothing to the maintenance of private charitable institutions. No outdoor relief is given by the city. The insane are a State charge. The city supports no children at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes.

NEW BEDFORD, MASS.

Population, 1890, 40,733. Estimated, 1898, 60,000.

The three Overseers of the Poor are paid officials, appointed by the mayor for a term of three years, one member being appointed each year. One overseer is secretary and almoner.

The Almshouse is the only charitable institution maintained by the city. The expense of maintaining it during 1897 was $28,086; and it had on Jan. 1, 1898, 90 inmates.

The city does not contribute to the maintenance of private chari-

table institutions. The city gives outdoor relief, and expended $28,086 for this purpose from January to November, 1897, inclusive.

The city maintains no lodging-house, and cares for homeless persons either at the Almshouse or temporarily at the police stations.

Insane persons who have a legal settlement are city charges. Those without a legal settlement are State charges. On Jan. 1, 1898, the city was maintaining 57 insane persons. Such persons are cared for at the lunatic hospitals at Taunton, Worcester, Westboro, and Medfield.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and supports none at public expense in private institutions. It places some children in family homes, and during 1897 placed one in a family to board, none in free homes.

ERIE, PA.

Population, 1890, 40,634. Estimated, 1898, 57,000.

The poor are a county charge, under the care of the Board of Poor Directors of the county of Erie. These directors are elected for a term of three years. They manage the County Poorhouse, and dispense outdoor relief.

The city owns no charitable institutions, does not contribute to the maintenance of private charitable institutions, and gives no outdoor relief.

There is no city lodging-house, and homeless persons who apply for temporary lodging are provided for at the police stations.

The insane are a county charge at the Warren Insane Asylum.

The city maintains no institutions for children, supports none at public expense in private institutions, and places-out none in family homes.

SOMERVILLE, MASS.

Population, 1890, 40,152. Estimated, 1898, 56,000.

The Board of Overseers of the Poor is an unpaid body, composed of four members elected by the city council for a term of four years, the term of one member expiring each year. The board

elects annually a general agent and a secretary, who receive salaries. These paid officials are not chosen from among the members of the board.

The city owns no charitable institutions, and contributes to the maintenance of only one private charitable institution, the City Hospital. This contribution is $9 per week for each patient who is a city charge, and amounted in 1897 to $1,984.33.

The amount expended in outdoor relief was $9,164.77.

The city maintains no lodging-house, and cares for "tramps" and "travellers" at the police station.

The insane are a city charge, when they have a legal settlement in the city. The number of such insane persons on Jan. 1, 1898, was 67; and they were maintained at the State Insane Hospitals.

The city maintains no institutions for children, and places-out none in family homes. On Jan. 1, 1898, two children were being supported at public expense in private institutions.

During 1897 two abandoned babies were cared for at the Day Nursery, a private institution, at the request of the Poor Department. They were subsequently turned over to the State, and placed-out in suitable family homes.

CLASSIFIED STATEMENT OF PUBLIC OUTDOOR RELIEF IN THE LARGER CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1897.

	Total.	Provisions.	Fuel.	Clothing.	Rent.	Lodging and board.	Salaries and office expenses.	Physicians' medical supplies, etc.	Cash allowances.	Transportation.	Burials.	Board of paupers in institutions or homes.	Other purposes.
New York [a]													
Chicago [b]	$136,200												
Philadelphia	18,250	–	–	–	–	–	–	$18,250					
St. Louis [c]													
Boston	133,104	$35,298	$7,840		–	$14,171 [j]	$24,244	1,657	$22,690	$801	$3,839	$13,072	$9,487 [k]
Baltimore [d]													
San Francisco [d]													
Cincinnati	11,946	1,757	2,311	–	–	–	6,189	–	–	–	1,452	–	235
Cleveland	39,853	14,276	11,621	$3,905	–	–	4,940	–	–	2,783	2,326		
Buffalo	109,626	82,750	20,825	403	–	–	–	–	–	–	5,524	–	123
New Orleans [e]													
Pittsburg	40,136	–	2,812	2,553	–	–	4,632	9,754	8,330	1,609	1,628	8,798	17
Washington	14,823		1,000		–	–	–	11,400	–	1,823	300	300	
Detroit	144,245 [f]	80,272	29,308	738	–	–	9,440	6,000	–	593	3,229	5,417	7,616 [l]
Milwaukee	97,626	35,899	29,568	–	10,505	–	8,893	2,400	1,015	2,581	–	–	6,762
Newark	27,138	10,063	8,152	–	–	–	6,250	–	1,550	–	1,026	–	96
Minneapolis	25,684	11,961	10,186	–	–	–	–	–	–	2,156	1,380		
Jersey City	6,000												
Louisville [g]													
Omaha [b]	19,514												
Rochester	49,023												
St. Paul	13,813	4,229	5,148	5	–	–	–	1,706	–	472	313	1,123	814
Kansas City [h]													
Providence	16,399		7,015		–	825	–	640	–	357	912	338	6,310 [m]
Denver [h]													
Indianapolis	7,185 [b]												
Allegheny	14,895	7,195	910	411	36	–	–	2,259	76	490	433	2,990	90

Albany	12,146	3,934	2,542	10	81	59	1,500	2,400	320	757	540		
Columbus	37,179	13,174	6,993	–	–	–	1,200	9,289	–	–	1,718	–	4,804
Syracuse	57,723	34,910	7,364	–	273	–	4,678	1,520	–	1,250	2,545	–	5,183 [n]
Worcester	23,467	3,298	1,130	225	–	–	3,289	913	332	636	818	12,791	31
Toledo	31,291 [b]												
Richmond	7,985	3,310	1,200	85	–	–	1,320	1,825	–	245			
New Haven	12,452	1,453	599	–	72	–	–	2,211	6,442	187	502	–	985
Paterson	18,626												
Lowell	19,020	9,587	5,126	1,283	–	–	–	–	2,414	–	610		
Scranton	14,850												
Fall River	43,086	19,247	1,947	112	–	–	5,766	8,655	406	637	1,768	1,344	3,200
Cambridge	21,985	2,666	1,630	46	–	–	4,180	575	–	837	419	11,618	5
Atlanta [d]													
Memphis [d]													
Wilmington	600 [i]	–	600										
Dayton	9,834	4,808	950	168	–	–	1,508	514	–	267	1,464		
Grand Rapids	13,640												
Troy	15,942												
Reading	9,405 [b]	7,465	–	–	–	–	–	–	1,940				
Trenton	9,404	5,749	432	–	–	–	–	1,902	–	126	456	798	
Lynn	13,669	12,052		–	113		1,121	–	381				
Lincoln	500 [i]	250 [i]	250 [i]										
Charleston [h]													
Hartford	10,582												
Evansville	800												
Los Angeles	30,000 [b i]												
Bridgeport	29,402												
Oakland	11,030												
Saginaw	1,600												
Lawrence	20,000 [i]												
Springfield (Mass.)	9,096	4,516	1,182	152	–	–	–	408	744	369	107	–	1,614
Utica	10,387												
Hoboken	5,253	4,352	73	–	–	–	–	30	–	–	294	–	503
Savannah [d]													
Seattle	8,347 [b]												
New Bedford	28,086	10,309	2,055	107	–	58	–	1,931	2,168	22	1,447	9,985	
Somerville	9,164	3,693	813	185	409	1,708	–	–	–	–	414	–	1,939

[a] No public outdoor relief except to adult blind and for transportation. [b] Distributed by county. [c] Small amount given from mayor's contingent fund. [d] No public outdoor relief. [e] No report. [f] Including payment in kind for 21,795 days' work on city reservoir. [g] Distributes fuel only. [h] City, nothing; county, no report. [i] Approximate. [j] Being the expense of supporting the Temporary Home and Lodge. [k] Advanced by other cities and towns for Boston poor. [l] For teaming and potato patches. [m] For maintenance of charity building and yard. [n] For labor on city works.

CLASSIFICATION OF PAUPERS.

IS IT PRACTICABLE IN THE UNITED STATES TO CLASSIFY ALMSHOUSE INMATES ACCORDING TO CHARACTER AND CONDUCT?

BY ALICE N. LINCOLN.

We are confronted in America with a most difficult problem, namely, that of making a distinction between classes which in the eye of the law are the same, and between the individuals composing those classes, who are not themselves prepared to admit that any difference exists.

It is one of the effects of our civilization that not only are all people born free and equal, but they remain so, to a great extent, during the natural course of their lives. This is true even of our criminal population, who, I am told by those who have an intimate knowledge of the effect of prison life, too often feel that crime is fully expiated by serving a sentence.

Thus there is no discrimination against a person who has been in prison, and it is a matter of difficulty to establish a distinction between the honest, self-supporting, respectable wage-earner who becomes an inmate of an almshouse through illness or accident, and the hardened, selfish, and idle "rounder" who resorts to an institution as a refuge to which he is entitled, and in which he will make all the trouble and do the least work possible. The legal standing of these persons is the same,— no difference is recognized between the self-supporting or worthy poor and the vicious or semi-criminal class, from the moment that individuals belonging to either become inmates of pauper institutions.

Therefore, the problem is a radical one, to be overcome, perhaps, by additional legislation or by a better education of the community, but still possessing inherently one fundamental difficulty; namely, that the people who are in question do not themselves recognize the least difference, or believe in the slightest discrimination.

In Germany the sharp distinction drawn by the government and the laws between the almshouse and the workhouse inmates must tend to educate the public to regard them along widely different

lines. I found in Berlin that the rule was absolute, and rigidly enforced, that no police offender could ever be an inmate of an almshouse (his previous record making it impossible, because the almshouse is intended for the worthy poor), but that even among workhouse inmates more classification is attempted and accomplished than is required in our almshouses.

At Rummelsburg, the great workhouse of Berlin, though all the inmates are police offenders sentenced to the institution, the young are kept separate from the old, the young men occupy different buildings from the old men; and young women who are morally and physically diseased are kept in a separate house, under lock and key. There is thus much greater classification in the Berlin workhouse than we in the United States observe between the worthy and unworthy inmates of almshouses, and the effect on the people themselves cannot fail to be educational.

A further beneficial result is attained. In the workhouse the labor test is rigorously applied to all except the sick. The men work at trades, in the wood-yard, or on the sewage-fields. The women perform the household labor of the establishment,— knit, sew, and wash all the clothes worn there, amounting to three thousand pieces daily.

There is thus none of the idleness too often seen in our almshouses, where the inmates sit about with folded hands, waiting for meal-time or bed-time to arrive.

There are a few feeble "almshouse cases" at Rummelsburg; but they are or have been in their past lives police-offenders, even if for minor offences only, and are not to be confounded with the worthy but unfortunate poor, who are cared for in a very different institution.

No sentence to the Rummelsburg workhouse is for less than six months, and for each succeeding offence the penalty is lengthened by the addition of several months until the maximum term of two years is reached. Thus a first offence for drunkenness or vagrancy receives a six months' sentence, the second nine months, the third twelve months, the fourth eighteen months, the fifth two years; and thereafter the full term of two years is imposed for every arrest. The Germans in this manner avoid the transient element, which is one of the most serious difficulties with which we have to contend either in almshouses or jails. (It should be remembered that in Germany a man is committed for drunkenness less because he is

drunk than because he is idle and a prey upon the community; therefore, the State interferes, and places him where work is compulsory and where he will be self-supporting.)

On the other hand, the worthy poor are treated with kindness, and almost indulgence, by the German government, and it can afford to do this, because it has taken pains to weed out the idle, vicious, or criminal class. The people themselves must recognize the distinction, because it is rigidly enforced.

The almshouse in Berlin differs from similar institutions in America, in that it provides a more liberal diet, and allows greater freedom to its inmates than is possible in our own country, where good and bad inmates are treated alike. But, as has before been said, no one who has ever been a police offender can be sent to the almshouse in Berlin. This makes it easy to treat the almshouse inmates with less severity in regard to rules, and with more indulgence as to food, than can be accorded to the dependent poor in America. For example, inmates are allowed to leave the institution between certain hours, and can come and go at will. Not being drunkards or vagrants, they can safely be trusted to return. Many of them, however, are too old or infirm to avail themselves of this privilege. They constitute a more feeble population than is found in our almshouses, because the young, the strong, the bad, have been disposed of in workhouses. Quite a number of the old people are confined to their rooms or even to bed.

The clothing furnished to the almshouse inmates is warm and abundant, and unusual care is taken of it. A missing button is an offence, and the remarkable pains taken in washing and mending clothes is noticeable, especially when contrasted with the ragged and unironed clothes too often seen in almshouses elsewhere.

The dietary also is generous, and so varied that the same bill of fare is furnished only twice per month. All these luxuries are possible when an almshouse is provided and intended only for the worthy poor. The German superintendent, a former army officer, seemed to feel a great pride in his work, and in no way showed his efficiency more than in the minute attention to detail, which he evidently considered a part of his duty.

Men and women are kept separate in the almshouse; but both men and women have assembly rooms of their own, where they can meet to talk or play cards without sitting in the wards. This does

away with one practice too common in our institutions, which are overcrowded by the vagrant class,— of using the same room for inmates both day and night.

All attendants in the Berlin almshouse are paid,— another most important distinction between home and foreign institutions. One attendant is allowed to about fifteen persons, and these attendants relieve one another by taking turns at night, when only one is in charge. Many of the old men and about two-thirds of the women are ill or ailing, and consequently require care. The wards are small, holding from two to six or ten persons only, and many little conveniences, such as wardrobes for clothes, are provided. Running through the establishment is the evidence of care, of kindness, of recognized desert, on the part of the inmates, who are really the *worthy poor*.

To obtain admission as a resident of the almshouse, three qualifications are necessary. The applicant must be poor, have no relatives who can support him, and must never have been a police offender. This is in decided contrast to our American plan, where a large number of almshouse inmates have well-to-do relatives who are able to support them, and many others have criminal records which read like the annals of a police court.

In Birmingham, England, it is also customary to make a sharp distinction between the workhouse proper and the workhouse infirmary, where the sick are cared for. While the legal separation is not so great as in Germany, a difference is observed. At Birmingham, in the infirmary, which averages about eleven hundred patients, all the attendants are paid; and thus the spectacle, too common in America, is avoided,— of almshouse sick waited on by almshouse inmates, which is in itself a hindrance to any system of strict classification.

The inference to be drawn from the policy pursued in these two cities of Berlin and Birmingham, which can safely be taken as models, because they represent the most enlightened thought of the century on certain subjects, is this: — the foreign method is evidently more just to the worthy poor, and a greater protection to the community. The short sentences to penal institutions for minor offences, which are customary in this country, habituate the offender to institution life, and he accepts cheerfully a term in a municipal prison, or a few months' residence in an almshouse. The law has few terrors for him, and he recognizes but little difference between a penal and a

pauper institution. Possibly more work is required of him in the former, but to compensate, the food may be a trifle better, and his standing as regards his associates is the same in either. So the "rounder" vibrates between the prison and the almshouse — sure that he can pass his winters in one or the other with reasonable comfort, and without too great strain upon his powers of endurance.

I believe this problem of the "rounder" is one of the most difficult which we have to face. It must be the desire of those who have charge of the poor in almshouses to make them more comfortable, happier, less like members of one vast community, more like individuals who are to be pitied and helped. How can this be done? At the very threshold of the work we are confronted with the "rounder." His selfishness and laziness make it impossible to class him among the worthy poor. He is not and never has been,— worthy. He must be fed and clothed, treated decently, and reinstated as a working member of society if possible; but seldom, indeed, is it possible! The worthy poor are not to be confounded with these people, yet in our institutions they touch one another, elbow one another, eat with one another; and too often the constant presence of this class interferes with the comfort of the deserving, and frustrates the best efforts of those who have them both in charge.

I could give many illustrations of the evils which result from this indiscriminate mingling of good and bad inmates.

On the same day I saw taken to our pauper institution in Boston a woman who had never, so far as I know, committed a fault or made an enemy in the whole course of her life, and who until the day of her death, some years later, was an example of patience and fortitude. Side by side with her in the City Hospital from which she was transferred, on the boat, and in the pauper hospital, was a woman, whose language was so foul, and whose temper was so violent, that she succeeded in disturbing an entire ward, and was a constant trial to her attendants and neighbors. Yet, in the eye of the law, these women were equal,—no discrimination could be made between them because of their previous history. In this lies the injustice of our American system, or lack of system.

To come more directly to the point under discussion: it does not seem to me possible to accomplish in this country the German system of classification, and to make a distinction in our almshouses accord-

ing to character and conduct, unless we adopt in our penal institutions also the German method of heavier and heavier punishments for each repeated offence. It will be borne in mind that the shortest sentence to the Rummelsburg workhouse is for six months, and for every repeated conviction the term is lengthened; the punishment being cumulative until the maximum term of two years is reached. A similar policy pursued here would do much to eliminate the "rounder" element from our almshouses, and the establishment of a workhouse to accommodate such sentenced persons would undoubtedly free both penal and pauper institutions from individuals who do not strictly belong in either. If the German method is considered too severe, the application of the indeterminate sentence to the class of persons who now receive only short sentences might accomplish better results, or the present law in the State of Massachusetts, by which habitual drunkards (namely, those convicted three times in twelve months) may receive sentences of one year's duration, could be extended to cover less flagrant cases of intemperance or of vagrancy. This would do much to protect our almshouses from the floating population which is now their most serious menace.

If, as seems evident, we must admit that under present conditions our system is far from perfect, the question may well be asked, what can be done to remedy its defects, or are they remediable under existing laws? To some extent, I believe they are.

It is possible, even with inadequate legislation, to accomplish certain results. The poor in almshouses could be placed in separate buildings, and could be kept apart much more than they are at present. In many almshouses, little is attempted except to divide the well from the sick, and to insist, in the better institutions, on absolute separation of the sexes. I see no reason why a system of grade should not be introduced into our almshouses, precisely as it has already been made one of the most essential features of our reformatories. There is no reason why good conduct should not be rewarded by better food, more indulgences, greater freedom; and bad behavior punished by certain restrictions in food, liberty, and companionship. I believe the time will yet come when these changes in management and discipline may be attempted, and successfully made. Hitherto, the effort has been too often merely to house and feed an almshouse population, to care for the people when sick, and to bury them when dead. There has been little

attempt to raise character or diminish pauperism by placing some incentive before the eyes of the individual pauper.

To accomplish changes of this description, it is necessary that the officials who are in charge of our pauper institutions, and the attendants who are employed in them, should possess high qualifications, higher qualifications than are usually expected and found in such positions. It takes men and women of a superior order to see that even under the rags of a pauper there is a struggling human soul,—that beneath the degradation and disgrace of pauperism there may be better instincts, higher aspirations, which need to be sought in order to be stimulated into activity.

I can pause in this brief paper only long enough to give two instances of the awakening of this higher nature which have come directly under my own personal observation. One of these is the case of a man who, having been several times a pauper and for many years a drunkard, has at last, with only a little kindly help and interest supported himself steadily and temperately for six months on less than two dollars and a half per week. The other instance is that of a boy, who, after spending eight years in public institutions, where he learned nothing except to read and write and to black boots, has now, through the assistance of friends, become a self-supporting and wage-earning citizen, making his nine dollars per week and feeling proud of it. These are not solitary instances. Many more such could be found if officials had time and interest and ability to look for them. We need higher grade officials to care for our dependent poor; and we need more intelligence at the top, if we would accomplish better results at the bottom.

To sum up as concisely as possible: —

1. There should be longer sentences, or indeterminate sentences for those persons who now migrate from jails to almshouses and almshouses to jails; and labor for this class should be compulsory.

2. There should be rewards for good conduct, and deprivation (if not punishment) for the reverse.

3. There should be higher grade officials in charge of pauper institutions, and separate buildings should be provided for inmates of different standing.

4. There should be a more distinct effort to treat paupers as individuals, not as members of a class.

By these means I believe a closer classification according to character and conduct could be made.

And then there is something else which can be done for these people. I cannot forbear speaking of it, out of a long experience in tenement-house work, although it does not directly concern the subject under discussion.

We need better homes for our working men and women, and for the children of our poor. I have had occasion to say it elsewhere, and so I do not hesitate to say it here and now, that, if we had more good houses, and fewer slums; if we had better sanitary conditions, and more air, light, sunshine and cleanliness in the tenements of our crowded cities, we should have fewer criminals, paupers, and defectives in our jails and almshouses.

My final word is to enter a plea for better housing, for better chances for these people at the beginnings of their lives. I am sure that those who have studied the subject will agree with me that better homes will mean fewer paupers to feed, fewer sick to nurse, fewer criminals to sentence, fewer defectives for which to provide.

PUBLIC AID IN A GREAT CITY.

ABSTRACT OF ADDRESS BY JEFFREY R. BRACKETT, PH.D., BALTIMORE.

Public aid, money appropriated from the tax levy, is not and never will be charity. The proper line between the work of public aid and the work of charity may not be drawn alike, as to details, in all our large cities; but one or two general principles can be found, I believe, to direct its general trend. Charity, like public aid, has a field of activity, very largely well defined, where it may accomplish most for the progress of society.

The people who form a State, a political entity, should strive to protect itself against harm, to make the next generations, and so the State, stronger, healthier, higher. A city is, of course, only a corporation, the creation of the State; but its citizens are citizens of the State also, and what affects them in one capacity affects them likewise in the other,— they cannot at the same time go up hill and down hill. Just where the line shall be drawn between the powers exercised directly by the State and the powers vested by it in a city

corporation is a matter of expediency, to be governed by the practical question how best to secure the desired protection and progress of the community. Through all legislation and regulation the desires of individuals should be considered, just as far as is consistent with the protection and progress of the community; but, if conflict arises, those desires must give way to the general good.

Now relief of distress must be administered in such a way as best to protect society, as quickest to decrease the number of dependants in the community. The care and treatment of the insane, the feeble in mind, and the epileptic, are the best illustrations here of a duty of society — to which society is but now gradually opening its eyes — which can best be performed through public agencies, as public aid. Many of these unfortunates should be segregated promptly, in order to prevent violence to others, and also the propagation of their kind; and many others of them can be restored to health and useful living by skilful treatment, when applied in time. For all of them ample provision must be ready in asylums and hospitals of high grade. These had best be maintained by the State, which can furnish one high standard of treatment for those coming from all of its communities; but, if the State does not make ample provision for them, the large cities certainly should, in model public institutions. This lies plainly in the field of public aid.

On the other hand, we find in our large cities a number of agencies, such as day nurseries, industrial exchanges, vacation homes for working-girls, children's country homes, etc. All of these unquestionably do good, when well managed; but they are not imperative necessities for the protection of society, they deal with a limited number of persons, and depend for good work largely on the personal interest and services of many individuals, and are peculiarly fitted to draw out, in gifts of money and of service, the charitable energy of the community. These lie plainly in the field of charity. As an illustration of a work of relief which lies between these two extremes, a work which charity may fittingly do, and yet which must be done by public aid, if not by charity, we take the care and treatment of the sick poor. By hospitals, large or small, for general or special treatment, by service in the homes of the poor, by visiting, nursing, by convalescent homes, and in many other ways, the charitable impulse of the community may expend its money and personal service in large or small amounts. All that public aid should do is

to see that medical treatment of a general nature is ready for those persons who cannot provide or secure it promptly.

Let us take up, as further illustrations, two topics of great importance,— the place which public aid should occupy in the care of adult dependants and of destitute or neglected children. The public relief of destitute adults is practically the question between "outdoor relief," food and fuel given in the homes, and maintenance in the almshouse. There are some persons who argue, I know, that the only real objections to outdoor relief are the difficulties of securing good administration. But the objection to my mind — and it seems very real — is one of principle. Aid should be given so as to remove temptation to accept dependence. A thrifty, struggling man should not have to see his unthrifty, careless neighbor receive from the public purse the food and fuel which he has toiled in vain to get for himself at the corner store. When public aid, which is looked upon in some way as a public right, is offered in a form which is not deemed desirable, as maintenance in the almshouse, the applicants for public maintenance are reduced to a residuum composed mostly of those who are chronic paupers. Now the majority of this class are weaklings, in one way or another; and the community is only doing its duty when it says, "If I maintain you, you must stay under the protection of the city home; for protected you need to be, for your own sake and for the sake of others." The remainder of the residuum — and experience will show it to be a small remainder — is made up of unfortunates, like widows with several children, who ought not to be public charges at all, if there is any charity worthy of the name in the community. There is certainly in every large city ample means for those cases of need, temporary or continuous, which charity — the duty of churches, the privilege of individuals — would maintain outside the city home or would strive by cost of trouble and thought, as well as money, to raise into independence. Charity, being more and more exercised in its best spirit in our large cities as churches and individuals are learning to co-operate, and to work with combined kindness and foresight, can do much relief work far better than public aid can do it. In the relief of destitute adults the sphere of the city is merely to provide a good city home, with all possible differentiation of inmates.

So in the care of children who must be dependent, and in keeping children from becoming dependent, charity can do much. The city

should maintain those only who cannot or who ought not to be cared for by relatives and who may not be cared for by charity. To care for these it must be ready; and it should decide by its own officials, who can survey the whole field of resources in the community, how each child shall be maintained so as best to lessen dependence, to protect the future of society.

Such, it seems to me, is in general the proper field of public aid in a large city,— ready, ample, good provision for those few general classes of dependants which must be cared for promptly, and often under legal control, for the protection and welfare of society; provision for all whom public aid can best care for, provision for those of the others who may not be cared for by charity. The expenditure of public money for relief should be under public control, made by officers sworn to duty, responsible to the whole community. The principle which should govern their methods, the details of their work, should be the decrease of dependence. Care should be taken that public aid does not encroach upon the sphere of charity, to the diminution of the charitable impulse in the community.

Do not misunderstand me to mean that society shall ever act with needless severity to individuals. Such severity would degrade society. The protection of society and of the individual will be the same, though the individual often will not see it. The wise and truly kind mother acts not by the wishes, but for the welfare, of her child.

To stop here would be only to allow any hostile critics to suppose that I do not know where they believe themselves to be securely intrenched. If there must be fighting, I wish to open fire first. The argument may be made that a city, instead of maintaining a few public agencies at large cost, which falls on the whole body of taxpayers, rich and poor, should use various private or quasi-public agencies, by adding public appropriations to private contributions, and so should promote the exercise of that charity which is so desirable. Now experience in many places and cases has shown that public appropriations to private agencies do not tend to promote charity. Sometimes the very undesirable result is seen of institutions really under private control run practically by public money. But, aside from that, a general use by a city of private agencies (if human nature stays as it is) will result in endless log-rolling, unfairness, and the promotion by the city of various agencies which are

questionable or undesirable. The sphere, the duty, of the city, is to make its few public agencies as nearly as possible model agencies. And another duty, demanding large expenditure, rests upon the city, — outside the field of public aid, properly speaking, yet closely related to it,— the duty of promoting health and decreasing dependence by giving cleaner streets, more parks and other public improvements in least favored parts, where live the poorest citizens.

Again, the argument may be made that, if society should take such pains in the administration of public aid, in order to prevent the increase of dependence, will not the use of private agencies, with city supervision following public money, tend to bring about a higher standard of work in the community than if the city has its own few agencies and each private agency goes its own way unheeded? This brings up a question of vast and growing importance. Why should supervision by the community, on behalf of the dependent, be limited to those agencies which receive public money? Reasonable supervision by a commission of specialists will work for the real welfare of the charitable, of the dependent, and so of the community. It is a question of duty primarily for the State to perform, but done it should be, by State or city. We license medical practitioners, we lay down strict health regulations, some communities limit the number of liquor saloons, some enforce the duty of education, etc.,— all done at the expense, perhaps, of the wishes of some individuals for the good of the community. And so, I maintain, it is the duty of the State, by a board of public officials, to inspect and report on the work of all private agencies for the care and treatment not only of the insane,— for so far we have gone,— but of all classes of dependants. "Good intentions" on the part of individuals should be good in the eyes of the community only as they make for the welfare of the community.

Lastly, the argument will surely be raised that political conditions in our large cities are such that public rule is often misrule, that the care of dependants ought not to be left to public officials. Now I believe that a city *can* make up a few unpaid public boards, of men and women both, for the care of its dependants, which shall represent a much higher grade of intelligence and of personal service than will be found in most of the many boards which run our private charities. Whether or no the city *will* do its duty depends mostly on the attitude which you and I and other so-called "good" citizens

are going to take and keep. To care properly for those dependent on a city is in truth an honorable service, is an important part of good city government. With the statement that we had better not intrust to public officials this lofty service, I have no patience. It should be done, and well done, by public servants, responsible to the whole community. Shall civil service reformers throw up their hands because their enemy still shows fight? Shall we give up the American public school system because it is not perfect? The way to secure what we believe to be right is to stand up and work for it, and to keep on working until we succeed.

OUTDOOR RELIEF.

ABSTRACT OF PAPER BY J. R. WASHBURN,

SUPERINTENDENT OF POOR, JEFFERSON COUNTY, NEW YORK.

The law — or the interpretation of a law — that allows an official to permanently provide for a family in their home (especially if there are members of that family able to work) is an admission that they are entitled to be supported in their own way, whether they earn it or not, if they only have the appearance of needing it. This is a dangerous admission to make to a class of people who are sure to take every possible advantage of it, and who need no such encouragement to become idle and improvident. And, when we carry this practice to the extent of teaching it to children from infancy onward, it becomes not only folly, but a menace to our social structure itself, as it is but a step from indolence and idleness to immorality and crime. We scold the man for being intemperate and spending the money for drink that should provide his children bread and shelter; but we have said to that man that, if he does this, we will not see his family suffer. We deplore the fact that people mentally and morally deficient, who are devoid of energy and the general attributes of good citizenship, should marry and reproduce their kind; yet we interpose no obstacle to prevent, and have promised them that we will supply what they fail to. When the conditions become so bad that

we are obliged to take these children from their worthless and incompetent father, or if he concludes that his easiest way is to give them up entirely until they may be large enough to be a help to him, we considerately place them where they will be brought up in the same religious faith that he professes, but has disgraced. Is not this really educating these people to the course of action we so much deplore?

It has been said in defence of this system of outdoor relief in the rural sections that we have no millionaires to come to our aid, hence we must resort to taxation. True, we have not; but every community has a wealth of kind and neighborly feelings and impulses to which they can appeal. And such appeals, if earnestly and honestly made, will always meet with a response. And, if this is supplemented by an appeal to the pride and better nature of those who need it, with the encouragement that any and all of us can give, we shall accomplish results which will be most gratifying and of which any millionaire philanthropist might well feel proud.

I am satisfied that a settled practice of liberal and lavish outdoor relief in any community,— a large portion of which always goes to tide people over into their next year's misery,— after all its large expenditure, will soon result in leaving more want still unprovided for than would the opposite policy,— of its total abandonment,— and that an increase in the demands on private charity is more likely to result from the former than the latter plan. This has proved true in several cases within my experience, where radical reductions have been made.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF MUNICIPAL CHARITIES.

BY HON. JOSIAH QUINCY, MAYOR OF BOSTON.

The problem of the proper organization and administration of municipal charities is not an isolated one, but is inseparably connected with the general problems of municipal government. It is possible, but by no means probable, that charities will be correctly organized and widely administered in a city where inefficiency or corruption characterizes other important branches of municipal activity; but the only sure guarantee of securing not only during a single administration, but continuously, the proper conduct of charities, is to be found in the maintenance of such a general standard of civic interest and of administrative efficiency as will result in the successful conduct of municipal government in all its varied branches. While certain special safeguards may perhaps be thrown around the administration of public charities, it is useless for those who are specially interested in this important branch of municipal service to entertain the idea that they can secure their own special objects while remaining indifferent to municipal government as a whole. Bad or ignorant city government must mean inferior public charities; and no general improvement can be made in municipal government, either through the awakening of a more active civic spirit, the effecting of some important improvement in municipal organization, or the election of a municipal official having a capacity for public administration, without a marked effect for good upon the policy and management of municipal charities.

It is therefore encouraging to note an increasing tendency among those specially interested in such problems as this Conference deals with to assume a part in connection with general municipal politics and to take such practical action as will make their weight felt in connection with nominations and elections; and it sometimes requires no greater effort to effect a general betterment by striking at the root of admitted evils than to secure a partial improvement in a particular department of municipal government. Co-operation in a common movement between all of those who are interested in the

improvement of any branch of municipal administration is therefore a most important end to attain.

In respect to the best form of organization of municipal charities the facts do not warrant us in assuming too dogmatic a position in favor of any particular system. American municipal government is still very largely in the experimental stage of development; that is to say, instead of having reached the best scheme of municipal organization and administration, as the countries of Europe have done, we are still engaged in a process of experimentation under legislative sanction, trying radically different schemes in different cities, and changing our city charters constantly to endeavor to improve the practical workings of our municipal institutions. The municipal problem is a very different one in the United States from that which has presented itself in any other country or at any other time; and, with the evidence around us on every hand that our municipal institutions are in a condition of unstable equilibrium, seeking and hardly yet finding the firm foundation upon which the structure of good local government may be erected, it would indeed be bold to the point of rashness to undertake to lay down any definite rules for the best organization and administration in all cities of their municipal charities.

The most which we can do as yet is to try to learn some of the lessons of experience and to lay down certain general theoretical principles, leaving the advisability of their particular application to be determined according to varying local conditions. In attempting to outline a few such general principles, drawn in part from the experience of the city of Boston, I do not desire to be understood as stating any dogmatic opinion as to the possibility or advisability of the practical application of these general doctrines in other American cities.

Perhaps the fundamental question of a political character connected with the administration of municipal charities is the connection of such administration with the central authority in the municipal government.

The first question is whether the officers or boards in charge of such charities should be chosen by the legislative or executive branch of the municipal government. Here I think the teachings of experience under our political conditions are very plain,— at least, in respect to cities of any considerable size. No members of city councils should serve upon charitable boards, nor should they have

any voice in choosing the members of such boards. These should be recognized as belonging strictly to the administrative machinery of the city, and should therefore be constituted by appointment made by the chief administrative officer, the mayor.

The question next arises as to the control which the mayor should have over such officers, and this simply resolves itself into the question whether he should have the power to remove them. Without the power of removal, effective control is impossible. With such power, however rarely it may be used in practice, all charitable administration is co-ordinated with the central executive authority. We may indeed secure good administration without having in any proper sense of the term responsible government; but, if we desire the latter, and are willing for the sake of its evident advantages to put up with its possible abuses, we must be willing to leave the power of removal in the same hands to which we intrust the power of appointment. This has been for the last twelve years the law in the city of Boston.

We next come to the question of administration by salaried officials as opposed to that by unpaid boards of trustees. Where the former plan is adopted, I believe that experience shows that for this purpose a single paid official is better than a salaried board. If we are to rely upon paid direction, it is best to have this single, and thereby at least secure the advantages of direct and individual control. Experience seems to show that there is always one dominant member in a paid board, and that the other members are either ciphers, or, if they do active work, are practically subordinate officers. While the paid board is doubtless a necessity in spite of this tendency in certain departments of municipal work, this does not seem to me to be the case in charitable administration. So far as our experience in Boston goes, we certainly considered it a decided step in advance when a single institutions commissioner was substituted three years ago for the salaried board of three members which existed up to that time. But under this plan everything depends upon the character and policy of a single individual. If he is a man of extraordinary mental powers and business ability, with a comprehensive understanding of the intricate problems which are constantly presented to him, the ability to look at a subject from many different standpoints and great receptivity of mind, he may indeed be able to accomplish greater results than can be secured under any other

system of administration; but it is needless to say that the problem of securing the appointment and service of such men in such positions is far from an easy one.

We come then to the system of charitable administration through unpaid boards of trustees appointed by the mayor. That this system has important advantages over any other, and is in important respects a safer one than any other, seems to me clear. Taking the three boards of institutions trustees which we have now established in Boston as a type, let us consider briefly what those advantages are.

In the first place, I think that it insures greater continuity of administration; and this is a point of very great importance. As each member of a board is appointed for a five-year term, it requires three years to effect a change in the majority of the membership through the making of new appointments on the expiration of terms; and, as such a course would be a decidedly unusual one for the appointing power to follow, there is practically a far longer continuity of membership and of policy.

Secondly, as the service is unpaid, one very important motive other than that of promoting the public welfare — namely, that of drawing a salary from the public treasury — is altogether eliminated. Selfish or even partisan political motives may indeed have something to do at times with candidacies for or appointments to such positions. As the report of the committee has truly stated, the unpaid board affords no guarantee against the intrusion of improper methods; and, where civic standards are low, and the general state of politics is demoralized, doubtless this plan of administration can be made to serve personal or partisan motives almost as well as any other. But it is certainly true that this system of administration at least makes it easier to limit the play of political forces, and to secure independent and unselfish service in those cities where this is demanded by an enlightened public opinion. Speaking again from the experience of Boston, it can be certainly stated as a general rule that salaried positions are regarded as political, while the unsalaried boards are now considered, as a matter of course, to be not political; and no one cares particularly what the political affiliation of their members may be, or, indeed, whether they have any.

Thirdly, the combined knowledge and wisdom of seven members of a board, if not greater than those of extraordinary and exceptional

individuals, are certainly greater than those of individuals ordinarily available for public service. The board is, further, the only agency through which the female sex can be given any direct voice in the management of charities; and in view of the fact that about one-half of the subjects of charity are women, and that many of the problems of charitable administration fall within fields which are admittedly better understood by women than by men, this constitutes no unimportant advantage. As long as such marked differences continue to exist between the lives, characters, and habits of thought of men and women, so long will it be necessary to give women a large voice in connection with charitable administration, if this is to be well rounded and equipped on every side. In Boston we now have four women serving as overseers of the poor on a board of twelve, three serving as pauper trustees, and three as trustees for children on boards of seven each, and two as trustees of the Insane Hospital on a board of seven.

Fourthly, I think it may be claimed that the unpaid board system of administration tends toward the greater subdivision and the better classification of charitable work. It would have been far more difficult in Boston — probably entirely impossible — to have secured the present division of charitable work if each department had been placed under a paid head. Under the system of administration of a single salaried head the tendency is rather toward the consolidation of departments than toward their increase in number, rather toward further concentration than toward greater specialization of control; and, as every student of charitable administration knows, a sufficient specialization of the work is of primary and fundamental importance. Indeed, I am inclined to think that the importance of having criminals, paupers, insane persons, and children controlled by entirely separate and distinct authorities, is even greater than that of securing one form of departmental administration rather than another.

In weighing the relative advantages of the board or the salaried official, it is important to understand just what the board system of management involves in the way of service exacted from the members and what it does not involve. It seems to me very important to recognize that the function of the unpaid board is not to execute or administer directly, but only to decide questions of policy and to supervise and direct the work of paid subordinates. In other words, a

board should be partly legislative and partly administrative in its functions. Its members should not be called upon to do personally what can be done as well or better by paid subordinates or to give more of their time to the municipal service than men and women who are busy about other affairs can manage to spare. Such a board may indeed have among its members with advantage one or two individuals who are able to make philanthropic work or public service their chief occupation and concern, but it would be mistaken policy in my opinion to make up such boards wholly in this manner. One of the distinctive advantages of the board system is that it tends to keep charitable administration in touch with public sentiment and to promote the interest of the public in it. The board should therefore be made as representative as possible of the whole community. If its members were to be drawn entirely from what I may call the philanthropic class in the community, the work might as well be farmed out by the municipality to the private charitable organizations. The political habit of a particular community in respect to having work done by unpaid boards, and the existence of a class of citizens both qualified and willing to serve on such boards, also has an important bearing on the matter. As to the latter point, it is needless to say that every civilized community must contain men and women who should be able and willing to render such service; but, if they have been accustomed to the idea of leaving municipal administration wholly to those who are active in municipal politics, it might not be possible at once to change this habit and to secure the kind of service that is needed. Perhaps the institutions boards are working well in Boston largely because the idea of departmental administration through an unpaid board is now firmly established in the favorable opinion of our community, and it has consequently been found possible to develop it with some rapidity. Two and a half years ago we had in Boston six boards of unpaid trustees, one of which was the City Hospital board, this institution having been from its foundation managed entirely separately — and to its manifest advantage — from other municipal charities. These six boards contained 36 members, 12 of whom were members of the Board of Overseers of the Poor. To-day we have 13 unpaid boards, containing no less than 80 members; and this number would be increased to 14 boards and 87 members if we include the Merchants' Municipal Committee, a standing body having semi-official municipal functions, though

chosen by the Associated Board of Trade. As our city council consists in its two branches of 87 members, we therefore have at the present time in Boston exactly as many persons rendering unpaid service in the city, at the head of important branches of municipal work, as we have elective members of the legislative branch of our government. The four unpaid boards which have been established during this time, besides the three institutions boards, are the Boards of Commissioners of Statistics, of Public Baths, of Music, and of Art. Aside from the special advantages in each particular department of this form of control, I cannot but believe that the multiplication of unpaid boards tends very strongly, if their members are wisely selected, to bring the great mass of the citizens of a city into closer relation with their municipal government, and so to promote the growth of a healthy civic spirit.

The matter of securing adequate appropriations for the maintenance and extension of charitable work is one which cannot be passed over, for this is a point of fundamental importance. The best administrative system will be ineffective to secure proper results if it is not supported by proper appropriations from the public treasury. Here, again, it seems to me that the board has manifest advantages over the single officer in the greater strength of the influence which it should be able to organize and bring to bear upon those who control the making of appropriations. It may be of interest in this connection to call attention to the fact that Boston has just copied a piece of financial machinery from the city of New York which, I strongly believe, will have a most important bearing in the future upon the possibility of obtaining adequate appropriations for our public institutions. An act has just been passed by our legislature, on the application of the mayor and of our representative business organizations, with the heartiest support of the members of the unpaid boards, establishing a board of estimate and apportionment, which is to consist with us of the mayor and the presidents of the two branches of the city council *ex officiis*, and two citizens elected at large, one each year for a two-year term. Under this act it will for the first time be possible, we trust, to have adequate weight given in the making up of our financial budget to the pressing and admitted needs of some of our institutions. I have no hesitation in expressing my opinion that there is no escape in our large American cities from giving undue importance to demands for the local expenditure

of public money, to the disadvantage of those great charitable interests of the city which are not considered the special concern of any one district, except through the establishment of a small board of this character, representing the city as a whole, and not responsible to any district, in which is vested the absolute power of preparing the financial budget. If order is ever to come out of the financial chaos in which most of our American cities are involved, it must be through the establishment and development of some special piece of municipal machinery of the character of a board of estimate and apportionment.

While for the present, charitable organization, both public and private, is perhaps necessarily dealing with the symptoms rather than going to the root of the disease, alleviating distress rather than taking measures to prevent its recurrence, the time is near at hand, I trust, when public charity will not consider more radical measures beyond its scope,— when it will recognize even more distinctly and comprehensively than it does to-day the intimate relation between the problems with which charity has to deal and those larger social, moral, and industrial problems which are beginning to perplex and oppress the world. The very necessity of public charity indicates the existence of social and economic disease in the community, as well as of mere physical disease in the individual.

Scientific charity must come to concern itself more and more with the education, the industries, the habits of living, and even with the recreation of the poor. The charitable administration which takes no cognizance of the individual before he enters an institution or after he leaves it, which only considers him as an inmate, and not as a member of society, will soon fall entirely behind the spirit of the age in which we live, which is conducting scientific inquiries into causes as well as observing effects.

The work of sociological investigation is indeed different from the work of practical charitable administration; but the two are necessarily and closely related, and the latter must not ignore the former. As we come to have a more correct conception of the causes which fill our charitable institutions with inmates and lead to a constant increase in the demands for outdoor relief, we shall, I think, come to realize that a great deal of the occasion for charity, public or private, can be avoided in the future, if not in the present, by a wise extension of political democracy into social and industrial democracy.

THE GRAND RAPIDS EXPERIMENT.

BY FRANKLIN B. WALLIN,

PRESIDENT OF THE POOR COMMISSION, GRAND RAPIDS, MICH.

I have been requested to continue the discussion on Public Outdoor Relief and Poorhouse Management. In response to this I can only bring my experience acquired by the limited service of two years on the board of poor commissioners of the city of Grand Rapids, which has a population of something over one hundred thousand. The policy inaugurated there, to which reference was made in Mr. Wiley's paper at Toronto, aroused a great deal of hostility among some of our citizens, more especially the Hollanders. Their clergy and church officers complained bitterly because the board would not send the poor and aged Hollanders to the Holland Home, a private institution to be maintained at the expense of the city. Under the laws of Michigan the State cannot contribute to the support of any private institution, either educational, charitable, or religious.

The county of Kent has an excellent "Home," maintained at the public expense; and it would be contrary to law and sound public policy to assign any pauper to any institution other than the one that is now provided. This disaffection was seized upon by ambitious young lawyers and would-be politicians, so that there was a widespread revolt against the board of poor commissioners, and a determination on the part of this pugnacious minority to wipe out the commission altogether. After a great deal of discussion, a compromise was reached. The charter was so amended as to provide that one of the commissioners out of the three should receive a salary not to exceed one thousand dollars a year, so that one year ago the commission was reconstructed by the addition of two members, neither of whom had any experience in this department, and one was a paid commissioner, a Hollander who was hostile to the general policy which was then enforced. In spite of these conflicting circumstances the commission got along pretty harmoniously, and at the end of the year just closed I feel satisfied with the general results.

This commission, when organized, was deeply imbued with the popular idea that outdoor relief administered by the authorities was always dangerous, and frequently led to confirmed pauperism. I did not believe that this was necessarily true, and am now convinced that a large proportion of poor people are paupers neither from instinct nor choice. True, they are morally weak, and frequently physically deficient. The environment under which they were born and reared has of course affected their character; but I see in them a spark of human soul, though perverted and distorted.

Using the language of Oscar C. McCulloch, "I see no terrible army of pauperism, but a sorrowful crowd of men, women, and children. I see in men and women, despairing, disfigured as they may be, broken and bent, imbittered, sorrowful, sinful, and criminal, simply fragments of humanity. They show the incompleteness of men, the partial losses of life. Therefore, I say we look upon men, women, and children, whom we call paupers and poor, pitifully, but hopefully; for not one, but many, may be brought back by persistent effort."

Last summer, when the demand for wood and supplies would naturally be much less than in winter, when our office force was not necessarily so busy, we had every case that had been on our books investigated and reinvestigated, whether they were then receiving aid or not. And, if the investigator was in the neighborhood of any of those families on other business connected with his work, he was instructed to drop in, and try to get the confidence of those people; and he would urge them to become self-supporting and independent citizens. Thus, with patience and kindness or with seeming severity and hardness, a great many families became entirely self-supporting,—about 62 per cent. of all of the families that had been on our books during the two years previous.

Of course there is, and always will be, some indigent families who must receive more or less assistance. There are many worthy aged people, who can keep themselves busy, who are not to be classed as permanent paupers; also many frugal widows who are endeavoring to train up their children as well as they can. And these families are continually growing toward self-support.

There are other occasional instances of the same general character that should, in my judgment, be provided for by what is known as outdoor relief, and should not be made inmates of any institution.

We have had a few cases of large families who, through incompetency and general shiftlessness, seemed incurable; but by steady and patient investigation, and of course by continual supplies, we have been able to lift them to the plane of self-support. Occasionally, we were sorely tempted to break up a family and send the children to the State School at Coldwater; and sometimes we would bring the whole family into probate court, under petition to send the children to that institution. This course had a very salutary effect. In some instances, no doubt, it would be better for the State to assume control of these children; but, as a general proposition, I am opposed to institutional life either for children or indigent persons.

A careful review of the work for two years shows that the commission has assisted 766 families, composed of 2,843 persons. The average age of the heads of families thus aided is 46⅔ years, which clearly shows that the majority of those who have been assisted are beyond the prime of life.

Divided into nationalities, we find the result to be as follows: American, 199; Holland, 279; German, 78; Irish, 54; Polish, 50; colored, 29; English, 17; Swede, 15; Canadian, 12; Italian, 6; French, 6; Scotch, 8; Danish, 7; Jewish, 2; Russian, 3; Norwegian, 1.

During that time 87 have died, and we have furnished transportation to 85 persons.

Causes of Indigency.— Sickness, 319; old age, 116; widows, 84; out of work, 126; drink and sickness, 2; drunkenness, 23; out of work and sickness, 32; deserted by the husband and father, 30; husband in penitentiary, 3; laziness, 6; large and incompetent families, 2; physical disability, 3; deserted children sent to Coldwater, 4; sunstroke, 1.

We have now on the list 74 families whom we classify as permanent dependants because of old age or permanent physical disability; also 30 widows with families of small children, who must be assisted until the children can relieve the public of the burden.

We have also assisted 211 families whose condition is not materially improved, although several of them are not at present receiving aid from the city; but their general character and helplessness seem incurable.

We also find families who are in an improved condition through the efforts of this board, both by furnishing them supplies from time

to time and by the kindly severity of the board and its constant efforts to encourage them to obtain work and stimulate their ambition. These families will require careful watching, and probably assistance from time to time.

We also find 193 families who are always on the verge of pauperdom through their improvident habits. These we have assisted and stimulated, so that they have become self-supporting for the present.

Assistance has also been furnished 281 families, some of whom, through no fault of their own, had fallen into straightened circumstances, and received temporary relief, and afterward become self-supporting by their own efforts.

To others who were professional dead-beats, receiving temporary aid, after careful reinvestigation, further aid was refused; and they now are self-supporting through the watchfulness of the investigator.

We find the average age of the old people who must receive continued assistance to be seventy years.

PRESENT CONDITION BY NATIONALITIES.

American.	*Families.*	*Holland.*	*Families.*
No improvement	41	No improvement	97
Improved in condition	12	Improved in condition	43
Self-supporting	146	Self-supporting	139
	199		279

Irish.	*Families.*	*Colored.*	*Families.*
No improvement	14	No improvement	9
Improved in condition	3	Improved in condition	4
Self-supporting	37	Self-supporting	16
	54		29

Ten Remaining Nationalities.

	Families.
No improvement	16
Improved in condition	7
Self-supporting	54
	77

This table indicates that 28 per cent. of the families comprising the several nationalities shows no improvement in condition, and 10 per cent. have improved in condition, while 62 per cent. have become self-supporting.

In the matter of cost to the city treasury the records of the city

comptroller show that, under the system of an elective Director of the Poor controlled by the common council, there was expended for two years: —

Salaries for the year ending April 20, 1895	$4,719.96	
Salaries for the year ending April 20, 1896	4,601.96	$9,321.92
Salaries paid during the administration of the board of poor commissioners: —		
For the year ending April 20, 1897	$3,526.07	
For the year ending April 20, 1898	4,079.35	
Total		7,605.42
Saving in salaries for the two years		$1,716.50
Disbursed during the last two years of the administration of the director of the poor, less salaries: —		
During the year ending April 20, 1895	$38,920.62	
During the year ending April 20, 1896	22,404.87	
Total		$61,325.49
Disbursed during the administration of the board of poor commissioners, less salaries: —		
During the year ending April 20, 1897	$12,909.81	
During the year ending April 20, 1898	9,559.70	
Total		22,469.51
Saving in disbursements for two years		$38,855.98
Saving in disbursement for two years	$38,855.98	
Saving in salaries for two years	1,716.50	
Total savings		$40,572.48

The foregoing statement of salaries includes $1,200 per year paid to the city physician.

There has been more employment during the past year, both in factories and public improvements.

The demand for dry goods and clothing has been reduced through the efforts of the Charity Organization Society, which kindly furnished such supplies as were given to them for that purpose; and the poor people can frequently have the opportunity of paying for them in work.

The demand for shoes has been materially reduced through the

efforts of Truant Officer Fee, who gave entertainments from time to time in order to provide a fund for the purchase of shoes for school-children. Many of the citizens have contributed to this fund.

I am also very glad to bear tribute to the active zeal and intelligence of our various religious, benevolent, and fraternal organizations. These by their hearty co-operation with this commission have brought great credit to our city, and contributed in a large degree to the success of our work.

My policy is to manage to keep people out of the poorhouse. As a good attorney will try to keep his client out of the courts, so will a good poor officer try to keep his constituency out of the poorhouse, so far as possible. I have no advanced theory regarding the care of the poor. I have only the law of God as it is written in His word and in the human heart. He establishes the family as the unit of the State. All that is noblest and holiest gathers about the family hearthstone. There the work of reformation must begin, and substantially there it must end. In the family we must find the solution of all social problems. I realize fully the necessity for various institutions. They occupy an important place in our system of benevolence. But it is my observation that all institutions, private or public, are continually seeking to promote their own growth and expansion, and are steadily endeavoring to perform a work which never can be so well done by them as it should be done in the family home. I believe more and more in the efficiency of the individual effort.

We have in Grand Rapids a district nurse association, which has never been able to employ more than two nurses; but the amount of good which they have accomplished is beyond all computation. They not only relieve a great deal of suffering in the poor families to which they are called, but they do a great deal more. The very presence of one of these nurses in a family brings renewed life, hope, cheer, and inspiration for a better life.

I feel confident that, if the corps of nurses could be increased fourfold in our city, the necessity for hospital treatment would be largely lessened, because, if the family could have the assistance and guidance of a good nurse, many cases of sickness would soon recover, whereas, owing to the poverty or ignorance of the family, the illness develops into a serious character, and often becomes chronic, and must be cared for at a hospital, involving much expense and suffering.

THE PUBLIC CHARITIES OF NEW YORK.

AN ADDRESS BY HON. JOHN W. KELLER, NEW YORK.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,— Before referring to the report that we have heard to-night, I want to say that the care of the sick, the foundling, the pauper, and the idiot, is more of a duty than a charity. It is as much the duty of the city to care for its unfortunate as it is to educate its children. Why is it, then, that the public school should be a matter of pride, while the Department of Public Charities is almost a shame to the greatest city in America? Either there has not been money enough given in the past for the proper administration of the charities or the men intrusted with the administration have not made proper use of the money given to the department. I think that the former is the case. By some unconscious cerebration, some curious transposition of cause and effect, the municipal authorities of previous years seem to have thought that because the Department of Public Charities has to care for paupers, the department itself ought to be pauperized.

When I go through the institutions under my charge, and find floors that have lain for years without repair, broken and splintered, hiding in their crevices the germs of all manner of disease; when I find plumbing that is a shame to the city, and that ought to be condemned by the Board of Health,— I feel that surely the Department of Public Charities has been neglected in the appropriation of public money. If it has not been so neglected, then it has been in absolutely incompetent hands. I have been a commissioner of charities only four months, and I do not pretend to speak as one who knows it all. I only know that there are certain things before me which should not be there and which I am bound to get rid of.

I have heard a good deal of discussion here as to the relative merits of a single-headed commission and a board of commissioners, of paid officials and unpaid officials. I have no theory about this sort of thing. The only system of government that appeals to me is the system that does things. I do not care whether the commission is single-headed or many-headed, paid or unpaid, or whether the administrative body is made up of boards innumerable. The

sick must always be cared for, the foundlings must be saved, and the department must be run on business principles to the end that it shall be a credit to the city. Success lies in the hand that holds the helm.

Reference has been made to the Infants' Asylum on Randall's Island. The day I went into office I visited that institution, because I had read in the newspaper that the death-rate there was 96 per cent. I do not think that that representation was quite fair to the administration that preceded me, because there is a distinction in the hospital between the foundling — that unfortunate creature which is more than half the time brought to the hospital moribund — and the child that comes there with its mother. The total death-rate never amounted to 96 per cent., but the death-rate of the foundlings did reach that appalling height. I found every flooring saturated with long use. In trying to clean the place, the suds would sink down between the planks of the floors, and remain there rotting; and this in itself was cause enough to breed disease and produce mortality. The plumbing was in such a wretched condition that I was surprised that some epidemic had not broken out. I found the children fed in the wards, with the food dropping all about the floor, attracting cockroaches and every other insect into the hospital. I found the babies lying unattended to. The well children were in the same wards with the sick. When feeding-time arrived, the nurses were satisfied to put the nursing-bottle to a child's mouth, and leave it lying until it cried.

By simply ordering a change in the method of treating the babies and by furnishing the institution with more nurses and better nurses, I have had the gratifying result of reducing the death-rate in the Randall's Island Infant Asylum to less than one-third of what it was in the corresponding time of last year. I ordered that the sick children should be kept separated from the well children, that food should not be served in the wards to children that could go into the dining-room, that absolute cleanliness should prevail everywhere, and that the nurses should give the strictest attention to their charges. Without doing anything else, the death-rate has decreased, as you have heard Mr. Folks say, in spite of broken and rotten floors and the wretched condition of the plumbing. I have set out to make the Randall's Island Infant Asylum successful in the care of the babies that come to this department. I shall do it. I have al-

ready furnished the institution with all the nurses necessary; and I would have done this, no matter how meagre my appropriation might have been. I might have had to go without a steamboat, without ambulances, without many other necessities of the department; but that death-rate on Randall's Island had to be reduced, and it has been reduced. Within three months I shall have new floors and new plumbing; and, before the year is out, the Infants' Asylum on Randall's Island shall lack nothing in equipment or service. And, as I am treating the Infants' Asylum on Randall's Island, so I shall treat every other institution in the Department of Public Charities until a condition is attained that is satisfactory to me as a commissioner and as a man. I believe that, when the present condition of the Charities Department becomes known to the mayor of this city and to our board of estimate and apportionment, we shall have money enough to mend every broken floor and every rotten wall in the department, and to run the department in such a way that it will become a pride to the city of New York. My reason for thinking so is this: When I went before the board of estimate and apportionment the first week of my administration, and stated to the mayor and other members of that board the condition of the Randall's Island Infants' Hospital, they did not hesitate a moment to give me all the money that I asked for for repairing the hospital that is now in progress. All that I have to do is to convince the board of estimate and apportionment of the necessity for the money, and I am sure that I shall get it. In attaining that end, I feel that I have the best aid in the world in the Charities Aid Association. That association furnishes me in the administration of my department with that public influence of which the Mayor of Boston has spoken as coming through his boards. The Charities Aid Association comes every day through the buildings in the Department of Public Charities. There was a time, it seems, that there was some antagonism between the Charities Aid Association and the Department of Public Charities. The department on its side seemed to regard the association as an enemy seeking to find out something to its detriment. The association seemed to think that the department was trying to conceal something from it. Only to-day I had a visit from a representative of the Charities Aid Association, complaining that certain people in the Department of Public Charities had refused to answer certain questions asked by visitors from the Charities Aid Society. I immedi-

ately issued a general order that every subordinate in the department should respectfully answer every question asked by any visitor from the Charities Aid Association. In the Department of Charities there is nothing to conceal; and, as long as I am at the head of it, nothing shall be concealed. If there is a broken floor, if there is anything necessary for which money must be had, I want the whole of New York to know it, because, when New York knows that I am trying to conduct the charities properly, and cannot do it for lack of money, the money will come to me.

The political aspect has been touched upon by the preceding speaker. I am a partisan. I am a Democrat and a Tammany Democrat. That is what I have told all my friends and all my enemies. On that score I want no misunderstanding. But of any one interested in the charities of New York I have never asked whether they be Republican or Democrat, and I do not care. But when they have said, "We are afraid of you because you are a Tammany Democrat," I have replied, "Then you will always be afraid of me, because I shall never be anything else but a Tammany Democrat." That brings politics into the working of New York charities to this extent: When the Mayor of New York appointed me, he said to me, "If you accept this position, you will have to give up your business; and you will have to assure me that nothing else in the world shall interfere with the discharge of your duties as Commissioner of Public Charities." I made him that pledge. If I had not, he would not have given me the position. That is the sort of mayor we have. That is the man who appointed me. That is the man who holds until the 1st of July the right to put me out without any question. But, stronger than that, back of him and back of me, is the party organization, which says to me, "You shall do your duty by the public; and, if you do not do it, we will put a man in your place who will." This may be news to some of you.

Now what is the method of political organization as it affects the Department of Public Charities? If there was no civil service rule, I would put Tammany men in every place. But the civil service is there; and, as I respect the laws, good or bad, I respect the civil service law. But here is the advantage I have with the Tammany man. *I* do not pick out the man. I simply say to the leader of the district, "Give me a good man for such a place." He gives me a man; and, if he is not good, I send him back, saying, he must get

me a *good* man, or I will get one of some one else. I feel surer under that condition of getting good men and good results than I would under any other that I can think of.

The subject of women has been touched on here to-night; and the suggestion has been made that, because Mayor Van Wyck has appointed no women, women have nothing to do with the running of public charities. If you were to sit half an hour in my office any day, you would change your opinion. The best workers in the Charities Aid Association are women. The best workers in all the independent outside associations are women. The three hospitals that are dependencies of Bellevue are supervised by women. Randall's Island, with its Infants' Asylum and its educational institutions, is run by a woman. If the mayor has not recognized women in the Department of Public Charities, the president of the board has cause to congratulate himself that they are not unrepresented.

The whole tendency of the Department of Charities is one of progress. In the old days, when the insane, the criminals, and the paupers were assembled together, there was a terrible condition of affairs. The insane are out, the prisoners are by themselves, and the poor and the sick are left to the charities. Everything is going forward. The time will come when New York will be proud of its charities, not from political manipulation, but because such conventions as this are becoming more frequent, because the study of public charities is becoming common among all the people, because the justice of the claim for recognition and support is becoming general and must prevail.

The Department of Public Charities must rouse the pity of the people. It is the dumping-ground of humanity. I have to care for those human beings that no other institution will care for. The infant that is found in the ash-barrel comes to me, even if it has only ten minutes to live. I have got to take it, and try to save its life. The idiots, who are even more helpless than babies, come to me, because no one else will take them. The person who is dying, and is refused at other hospitals, comes to me; and I must take him. I must be ready to take any human being that is still alive, and try to save that life.

There is always in every department certain perfunctory work. We are first shocked by suffering. I recall my feelings the first time I ever saw a clinic. I remember my impressions in going through

hospitals, and how they shocked me. The people employed become hardened and callous. The other day, going to the island, there was a sleety rain falling; and down from the city hospital came two men bearing a stretcher, on which was an old woman. The icy rain fell on her face; and they put her down on the pier, and left her lying there, exposed to the storm, while the prisoners in stripes were carrying bags of potatoes under shelter. They would have left her there till the whole cargo had been put on the boat if I had not happened to see her, and ordered her brought under cover, and reprimanded the men, and told them that, if I ever again found a man at a thing like that, I should discharge him. Evils must be detected, and evil-doers must be punished promptly. That is the only way success can be had. It takes constant exertion. You have got to watch always, and be forever alert; and that is the reason I welcome the outside aid of the State Charities Aid Association. They see many things that I cannot see, and they tell me what they see.

I have not mentioned the worst side of the duties of a commissioner. I can stand the politicians and the employees, and manage all of them; but the so-called business man, who comes up and tries to rob me, when I am not looking, that I cannot stand. I do not know why it is, but there seems to have been somewhere cause for the assumption that the Department of Public Charities is public prey for men doing business with it. Either they have been accustomed to doing business in that way or they have taken the present commissioner for an easy mark. I hope my reputation does not justify them in the exercise of their tactics. I am sure that, long before my term ends, that sort of business man will look elsewhere than to the Department of Public Charities in the hope of making money.

Ladies and gentlemen, I thank you for having invited me here. If there is any one thing that I welcome above all else, it is just this sort of expression of interest in charity affairs. It is only with the aid of the intelligent community, which must be awakened by all possible means of publicity, that the Department of Public Charities of New York will ever become a credit to the community.

THE DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF PRIVATE CITIZENS.

AN ADDRESS BY JOSEPH H. CHOATE, PRESIDENT OF THE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,— I cannot boast of being a Tammany Democrat; but it is very interesting to have made the acquaintance of one who can, and who really is not half so bad as he thinks he is, because, to tell the truth, he is doing his work almost as well as if he had been an independent Republican.

You must not expect too much of me because I have been introduced as president of the State Charities Aid Association of New York. The real work of that association is done by women; and heroic, noble-hearted women they are. And they allow a mere man to hold a nominal office as president, but only to put in an appearance when the society has to assume a little more brazen appearance than suits their own inherent nature; for I can assure you that in its internal affairs men are of no account whatever.

So I am no expert. I have no message to deliver to this Conference on the subject of municipal charities or the conduct of them. But the idea that occurs to me is that every city, every municipality, has just about as good an administration of charities as it deserves, and no better. I could not help thinking, as Mayor Quincy was making his thoughtful and instructive address, how it would do if we could try the experiment of exchanging city governments for a while. Let Boston give us for the next six months its mayor and its perfect boards, its eighty-seven men and women who are willing to devote themselves to the public service for nothing; and they might take our mayor, and welcome! And yet I doubt very much if it would not be a misfit in both cases, unless you could change the populations, too. You cannot expect to raise the population of New York up to the level of the sentiment of Boston, any more than you can expect to drag down the population of Boston to the level of the public sentiment of New York. It all depends upon what the people want. I have always insisted, in respect to our city government in general, that we have just as good a city government as the

people of New York want. We always have had and always shall have. And so it is in Boston. They have as bad a mayor and as bad a city government as public sentiment in Boston will permit. For several generations they have been content with nothing less than a Quincy.

I know as well as I know anything that the administration of charities, just like the administration of everything else, depends upon what the people insist upon having. Who supposes for a moment that, when Howard made his visits through the prisons of Great Britain and Europe and exposed the filth and misery and degradation and cruelty that he found there, the condition he found existed because the public sentiment of Great Britain was low and degraded and filthy and cruel? It was not so at all. As soon as the fearful conditions and grievances were exposed, as soon as the intelligent people of the community had an opportunity to really grapple with them and realize them, the whole matter was subjected to a steady progress of reform. So, when our own philanthropist, Miss Dix, went into the State prison at Charlestown, very near the city over which Mayor Quincy now presides, and found a similar state of things there; and when she came to New York and Pennsylvania, and found the depths of degradation — I might almost say the felonious treatment — of the insane in public institutions,— it was not because the people of Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania loved those things and knowingly tolerated them, but because they did not know of their existence. Miss Dix had only to make known the facts, to make the results of her mission known, when the people of the whole nation, as represented in Congress, rose, and insisted that those evils must be put an end to forever.

Mr. Keller's idea is the true one,— absolute publicity for all our public operations. It is the same in charity as in every other department. As long as the public knows what is going on, and demands it, the law will be admirably executed, as the Department of Public Charities is at the present moment; but the sure result of public neglect will inevitably come, I do not care who is mayor or who is commissioner. Evils will cry in vain without this publicity; and how can they be reached and exposed? How can the public mind always be kept up to a realization of the fact that the condition of its public institutions is the thing that the people them-

selves, after all, are responsible for? It was to help in creating this public opinion that the State Charities Association was formed a little over a quarter of a century ago. I believe it antedates this Conference by a year or two. The idea sprang up in the minds of some of our heroic women that they could be of service in visiting and inspecting the public institutions of charity and correction; and, if they found evils, why, they would make those evils known. If they found barbarous practices, they would make them known; and the result would follow that they would be cured. And it has undoubtedly largely contributed to the public good, and is doing, as Mr. Keller has said, a great deal of good every day.

There is an evil almost as great as any other in respect to the administration of charities. There is the danger of making charity too attractive. It is not so much the difficulty of keeping paupers in the almshouse as it is of keeping those who ought not to be paupers out of the almshouse. That has been one of the great difficulties in administration.

Let me call your attention to one or two things that have been done by these noble women. If you heard Bishop Potter last night, you will remember that in his very pleasing address he spoke of the evils of institutions in a growing population; that is, the mischiefs of herding and keeping children within a semi-public institution, supported by public money,— keeping them there many years after they ought to be turned out. When the State Board of Charities was established, and all these institutions were placed under its control, the idea occurred to these ladies that they could assist in this way if they could secure the appointment of inspectors under the regulations of the State Board of Charities, to eliminate all children who ought not to be there. The result was that hundreds and hundreds were so eliminated and removed, and ceased to be a public charge; and hundreds of thousands of dollars of the public money was saved to the city of New York.

Take Miss Schuyler's great work in regard to the insane. Thanks to her and her able associates of this association, the shocking condition of the insane in the local poorhouses, where there was no supervision of their condition, no suitable medical attendance, no nurses, but all were surrounded by filth and degradation, was made known. The condition of those unfortunate people appealed to those ladies, and they conceived the idea that the State was respon-

sible for their proper care, that the State had ample means, if the villages and towns and counties had not, and that it was the business of the State to take care of them, and provide them with medical attendance, nurses, decent surroundings, and kind attention and treatment. That required an effort on the part of these women to make these evils known and appreciated throughout the State, because it could only be remedied by act of legislature; and this they have succeeded in doing after ten years of heroic and steady work. Now there are twenty thousand insane people, every one of whom owes to these heroic women an infinite debt of gratitude for rescuing them from the degradation to which they were subjected. They are now treated as such unfortunates ought to be treated, humanely and decently, so that whatever faculties they have remaining shall tend in the direction of self-respect.

Those are only two of the instances of the marked good that has been accomplished. You do not suppose that even our Board of Estimate and Apportionment would be proof against the appeal of the citizens, insisting on appropriations being made as Mr. Keller shall say is necessary. And if the dictates of the Commission to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment are not enough, and the combined voice of the voters is not enough, the opinion of the women of this city would soon make itself felt. There is no evil that public opinion will not reach.

That is the one idea that I had to offer, that public sentiment must be cultivated. The condition of all these institutions must be as open as the day to the public view. I know as long as Mr. Keller is in office that will be so, but there will be many officers of whom it will not be true. With constant inspection and publicity, no serious evil can long exist; but we shall advance and progress. Mayor Quincy, we shall yet reach the high ideal that you have held out to us. It will take time. It took ten years to get the insane reform through: it may take twenty years to get other reforms through; but the life of Greater New York is not for a year. It is for all time, and we must not despair of any present evils in the administration of charity. We must not despair. The people of this city, if they want better systems of charity enforced, better systems of discipline in our establishments of correction, must wake up and demand them; and what they ask will be given to them.

I have not contributed much wisdom here. I came to be in-

structed, not to instruct; and every time I come to the meetings of this Conference I learn something new. I have learned to-night what an excellent thing a Tammany officer can be. I really confess that I did not know that it was possible before. I always knew what a grand thing an independent mayor was. Well, you may say that I do not know that by experience in New York; but we do. We have had experience even of that; and the time may come when — if every Tammany man becomes like the one we have heard to-night — I may join the ranks of Tammany myself.

V.

Laws of Settlement.

LAWS OF SETTLEMENT AND THE RIGHT TO PUBLIC RELIEF.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE BY F. H. WINES, LL.D., CHAIRMAN.

The law of settlement, as it is called, concerning which even the legal practitioner ordinarily knows little, and that of "domicile," which enters into many important legal controversies, and with which lawyers are therefore more generally familiar, have very much in common. By domicile is meant, broadly speaking, the place of one's permanent residence, or a man's home and his legal relation to it. Every person, whether man, woman, or child, must have a domicile somewhere. Settlement, on the other hand, is the right to relief in case of need, based upon residence. The law recognizes the claim of every person in distress and incapable of self-help to ask at the hands of the community of which he is a member such assistance as is requisite, at least for the maintenance of life. In other words, it recognizes his natural right to live; and, if unable to live by his own exertions, it imposes upon the community to which he belongs an obligation to furnish him with the means of subsistence. Should he die of neglect, the community must be held responsible — if not before a court, at the bar of public opinion — for his death. The right to some form and degree of public relief in extremity is thus seen to be a communal or corporal right; and it follows that the discharge by the community of the correlative corporate obligation under the law is not, in any true sense of the word, an act of charity, and that the term "public charity" is often a misnomer.

Now domicile is of two sorts, original and acquired. The original domicile of every human being is the place of his nativity, or the

place where he was born. When he removes his residence from one place to another, with the intent to remain, he acquires a new domicile; and his domicile changes with every fresh act of removal during the course of his natural life. Should he lose his acquired domicile by such removal, without thereby gaining another, his former or original domicile revives. Nothing that he can do can deprive him of his domiciliary relation. Married women follow the domicile of the husband, unless separated and having a permanent residence apart. Legitimate infants have the domicile of the father, illegitimate infants that of the mother. This is, of course, a very condensed and incomplete account of the law of domicile; and it takes no notice of qualifications and exceptions laid down in text-books on the subject which do not concern the course of the present argument.

If the right to public relief were founded strictly upon domicile, the question of settlement would obviously require no elucidation beyond proof of the pauper's permanent place of abode, in which he is liable to taxation, and where he possesses the right to vote. There is, however, a distinction between permanent and temporary residence. I do not lose my domicile by absence from home, if I have no intention of fixing my permanent residence elsewhere, even though such absence may cover a period extending through a number of years. In case any man's life should be in danger while thus absent from his home, the obligation to save it would rest not upon the community of which he is a permanent member, but upon the community in which his lot may be for the moment cast. The solidarity of the entire human race is such that, while kinship is of different degree, the natural claim to relief in extremity knows no limitation by way of consanguinity or territorial proximity. The race in all its branches, however remote, constitutes a single family, of which we are all members; and the corporate distinction made between communities, while it is in one sense natural, is in another sense highly artificial. The ties which unite us to each other are the act of God. The barriers which separate us are of our own making. Political subdivisions, in spite of their convenience and necessity, and although they had originally a tribal and hereditary basis, have grown, in the course of the revolving centuries, to be more or less shifting boundaries between areas of soil defined by the surveyor's chain and compass. No sacredness attaches to them, there is in them no quality of necessary permanence; and the extent of the com-

munal unit of which the individual is a member is determined by the arbitrary act of a group of men intrusted, in their representative capacity, with authority to make laws subject to perpetual amendment. Legislatures and constitutional conventions determine the political organization of the territory subject to their jurisdiction. The inhabitants of a certain political division constitute a community by virtue of the single fact of their residence therein. The same person is a member of various communities, larger and smaller,— the town, the county, the State, the nation; and his rights in each of these communities are determined by statute.

This was not precisely the conception in the minds of the men who originally framed the settlement laws of New England. Those laws were designed to exclude from membership in the community such persons as were thought to be undesirable. Membership in the community was regarded as a privilege; and it was conferred by vote of the inhabitants of a town in a town meeting, as men are now elected members of a social club. The right to pauper relief was one of the rights conferred upon an elected freeman, together with the homestead set apart for his use and that of his posterity. This right was a vested right, inheritable as other property is inherited. It was inalienable, and survived the act of domiciliary removal. Derivative settlements acquired by marriage or descent inhered in persons not born in the town of which they were hereditary members, and who had never at any period of their lives resided therein. Persons not freemen in any town nor descended from freemen had once no legal claim to relief, whatever might be their necessity; and such relief, if extended to them, was an act of voluntary charity, a favor, and not the discharge of a legal obligation.

The practical result of the adoption and maintenance of this system, peculiar to New England and not in force elsewhere, was the growth of a pauper population with no claim to local public relief, who must be cared for, if cared for at all, either by private benevolence or by the State. They were "alien paupers," but are now known by the more considerate and sympathetic title of "the State poor." Alien paupers could acquire settlements, but upon terms including length of residence and payment of taxes, which in many cases rendered such acquisition impossible, even for natives of the State without a hereditary settlement, or whose settlement had in any way been cancelled. When the State board of Alien Commis-

sioners in Massachusetts was succeeded by the Board of State Charities with other duties, both administrative and supervisory, added to that of acting as virtual overseers of the State poor, not one-half of the residents of that State were entitled under the law to claim a settlement in any town within the Commonwealth. The new board at once addressed itself to the solution of the problems which this condition of affairs presented for its consideration, and by degrees secured changes in the settlement laws which reduced the ratio of non-settled residents from about one-half to about one-fifth. This fraction of the population of Massachusetts has a claim to local relief in extremity, but is dependent upon the kindly offices of the Commonwealth executed at the cost of the State treasury through the agency of the State Board. This board, therefore, sustains a very different relation to the subjects of public charity, whether suffering from poverty, disease, or mental perversion, from that sustained in other States by similar boards.

One question which invariably has to be met in the administration of relief is that of cost. At whose expense shall relief be given? The answer to this question determines the boundary line between public and private charity, as it does also between the charitable work of the State and that of the Church. Where public charity is bestowed at the cost of different public treasuries,— those of the towns, as in New England, or of the counties, as in the West and South, and of the State,— some system needs to be devised of apportioning this expenditure between them. Such apportionment can be made by classifying the subjects of relief, and reserving to the State certain classes of unfortunates,— the insane, for instance, as its special charge; while the duty of caring for other classes — sane paupers, for instance — is imposed upon the counties or the towns, as the case may be. The State can assume the entire pecuniary burden of the support of the insane and other special classes, while in custody and under treatment, as is done in Ohio, Illinois, and Minnesota, or it can collect the charges for such care and treatment from the counties and towns benefited thereby, as in Massachusetts. This is merely a detail of taxation. Whether the fund required is raised by the mechanism of general or of local taxation, in either event it comes out of the pockets of the tax-payers, and is applied to the accomplishment of the same general purpose. State taxation appears to be simpler, more direct, and more equitable.

Each of these two systems has its special advantages and disadvantages, which will not here be discussed. But it is obvious that, where the State collects from municipalities and minor political divisions of the commonwealth charges made for the care and treatment of certain individuals, while others are maintained at the expense of the State itself, the foundation is laid for numerous disputes as to the pecuniary liability for the cost of treatment of those whose settlement is in doubt. This is precisely what has occurred in Massachusetts. And lawyers in the South and West who have occasion to refer to the Massachusetts reports are astounded to find so much space occupied by judicial decisions relating to the interpretation and application of the law of settlement,— a law which, as it is understood in New England, is found in no other section of the United States. The greatest difficulty relates to derivative settlements, since the same person may apparently inherit more than one settlement from different ancestors, while in fact he can have but one settlement, and the question at issue can only be determined by the courts. It is the interest of the town to show that the dependant has no settlement within it, but that he has a valid claim to settlement in some other town, or else that he has no settlement, in which event the burden of his support is thrown upon the State. It is the interest of the State to prove that the dependant has a settlement somewhere, and to prove it. The proof is often difficult to find and to present in a satisfactory and complete form. These controversies have bred a special class of experts in the law of settlement. Yet it is said that there are not a dozen men in Massachusetts who know all the intricacies of this law and can pick their way unerringly through its labyrinthine mysteries.

Outside of New England a simpler system prevails. There are few settlements, certainly no inheritable settlements. The word is not in popular use. Even the legal profession is unfamiliar with it, since it rarely occurs in the reports of decisions by the courts. For the law of settlement is substituted that of residence, more nearly allied to that of domicile, the only difference between the two being that, while domicile is the place of one's permanent residence, the right to relief in the South and West rests upon temporary residence. The term of residence required by law in order to acquire this right is usually one year, but in some of the newer and more sparsely inhabited States only six months. As in the law of domicile, the residence of

the husband is presumed to be that of his wife, and the residence of parents that of their minor children. Under this system there are very few persons who have not a settlement. The settlement of every person who has a settlement is easily ascertained and proved; and the occasion for legal controversy between towns, counties, and the State, is avoided. There are, of course, persons from outside the State who have been in it less than a year, and so have not acquired a residence and the right to local relief, but who are subject to be returned to the places from which they came, if destitute and a public charge. There are also persons whose business engagements or whose inclination leads them to move about within the State, thus preventing them from claiming a local residence. But the exceptions to the rule that every inhabitant of the State is presumed to be a legal resident of some one of its political subdivisions are so rare that they have failed to attract public attention. The meaning of the phrase "a State pauper" is almost unknown. Small special provision is made by law for this class; and the machinery for relegating non-resident paupers to their places of settlement in other States or counties has not generally been organized, its utility having not yet been recognized nor its necessity strongly felt.

In the programme prepared by the Executive Committee for the present session of the Conference the report of the standing committee on the law of settlement has been placed last. Logically, it should have come first, since the subject under consideration is fundamental, and lies at the threshold of all systematic discussion of the charity problem. Whoever is called to meet with the committees of a State legislature, responsible for the character and amount of the appropriations to be made for public charitable uses, will find himself confronted with the inquiry, What justification, in law or morals, exists for any such appropriation? He must be prepared with an answer to this pertinent question. He must be able to show that the right to relief is a natural right, founded upon the fact of human brotherhood and the mutual obligations growing out of the solidarity of the race, and especially of the State and its subordinate branches regarded as a community. He must show that the existence of this right has been admitted by the uniform recognition of it in the fundamental law and in the statutes, and in their practical administration by the executive department of the government, approved by the judiciary. He must be in a position to explain

how this right is acquired by individuals, and what are its necessary limitations. If a particular appropriation falls within these limitations, it is justifiable, otherwise not. Its propriety, under all the existing circumstances, is a question of public policy. No advocate of the claims of the unfortunate to consideration at the hands of a legislative body can successfully accomplish this task without an understanding and appreciation of the relation of settlement to public relief, and his success will be proportionate in some degree to the definiteness of his ideas on this important subject.

More than this, a comprehension of it is essential for the private charity worker, in order that he may clearly perceive the line of demarcation between public and private charity. If it is a mistake on the part of the government to trench upon the domain of private charity and undertake tasks which ought to be left to purely voluntary initiative, it is equally a mistake for private charity to assume a purely governmental function, and seek to discharge it in a very imperfect manner, as it does in many instances, which will not be here enumerated for fear of provoking a heated and unprofitable controversy. A perfect understanding of the law of settlement enables its possessor to perceive the bearing and force of the remark that, while private charity may be charity in the sense of favor, which one is at liberty to grant or withhold, public charity, if confined to its proper sphere, is never a favor, but always the recognition of a natural and legal right on the one hand and a natural and legal obligation on the other. If it transcends that sphere, it is always a wrong, and therefore a public and private injury. Public charity is, therefore, strictly speaking, no charity. Its work is supplemented by private charity, which either anticipates it, with a view to the prevention of the growth of the pauper spirit and its suppression in the bud, or else follows it, relieving with loving sympathy those who are not entitled to aid at the hands of the State, but have, nevertheless, a claim upon human pity and help. Private charity has work enough of its own to do without undertaking the work which the State is bound by principle and by precedent to accomplish at the public cost and expense.

This leads, naturally, to the final observation that, whatever arguments may be advanced on behalf of the complete suppression of public outdoor relief, such suppression is both impracticable and undesirable. It is impracticable, because there are communities, es-

pecially rural communities, in which there is no available substitute for it. Outdoor relief is often the most economical as well as the most humane form of relief,— the only form of relief indicated as requisite in a particular instance, and one which has least tendency to pauperize its recipient by attaching to him an ineffaceable stigma. The rule that persons in need of temporary help shall go to an institution, public or private, to receive it, instead of receiving it at their own homes, is so harsh that it cannot and ought not to be enforced against any but permanent, habitual paupers. There are persons who have a claim to temporary aid at the cost of the public treasury, who might find it difficult to establish their claim to private benevolence. In the administration of private charity too much attention is often paid to the supposed worthiness or unworthiness of the applicant for relief, meaning thereby either moral character or else personal responsibility for his present unhappy condition, through idleness, vice, or lack of prudence, foresight, and ordinary thrift. Where public outdoor relief is abolished, there is danger that the more rigid tests applied to applicants for relief may work an injustice to individuals; and private charity, if it assumes this burden and responsibility, which it is not called upon to assume, does so from motives which command our admiration, but it must none the less see to it that its administration of a voluntary trust is not less impartial or efficient or liberal than it would be, were this obligation met by public officials acting by authority and under the direction of the State. A better method would seem to be the establishment of a thoroughly satisfactory mutual understanding and co-operation between the agents of private benevolence and those of the State, and the introduction into public outdoor relief of charity organization principles and methods, with no admixture of weakness or any sinister political purpose and aim. But the abolition of all public outdoor relief is in itself as crude a remedy for the improper administration of this form of relief as was the burning of the bamboo huts of the Chinese, satirized in Charles Lamb's famous essay, in order to roast the suckling pigs who were joint tenants in them with their pig-tailed occupants and owners.

THE ADVANTAGES OF STRICT SETTLEMENT LAWS.

BY F. B. SANBORN, CONCORD, MASS.,

A MEMBER OF THE COMMITTEE ON LAWS OF SETTLEMENT.

Although agreeing in the main with the chairman of our committee on the proper legal aspect of poor-law relief,— so often unconsciously misrepresented by those who have adopted theories of their own on the subject,— I believe there is one phase of the question which we understand better in New England than the rest of our countrymen do, because we have had more of the matter to administer officially in consequence of our peculiar Yankee laws of settlement. Such statutes hardly exist out of New England, or, if they still stand in the books, they are practically all but ignored in the South, South-west, West, and North-west. I do not mean to claim special credit for these enactments of ours. Like the old laws excluding or banishing Quakers, they date from a time when altruism was very unlike what it now assumes to be, while it passes or administers laws for the relief of the poor. But I may be allowed to point out that laws originally designed, it may be, in a selfish spirit, have been overruled for good in their administration, and are by no means the unalloyed evil that some have alleged, in ignorance of their practical result.

The old English law of settlement, dating from the time of Charles II., against which so many writers have inveighed, became in course of time very burdensome, and hostile to the interest both of the poor and the rich. But our New England laws of pauper settlement were not based on this English statute. They began at a time when our Puritan ancestors were not unduly regardful of what an ungodly Parliament of Episcopalian bishops and country squires might ordain as law for Englishmen. They were intended, originally, — our Yankee laws for the relief of the poor — to provide equitably for the public burden, and incidentally to allow the good people of any township (corresponding to the English parish) to decide for themselves who should live among them on those terms of equality which the condition of most colonies, and the church constitution of

early New England in particular, made needful. It was not upon privilege,— no, not even the privilege of the saints to inherit the earth,— but upon Christian equality that Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay and New Haven and New Hampshire and the Providence Plantations were founded as colonies or administered as provinces. Men of various classes sought to assert their privileges as magistrate or minister, or great landholder or rich merchant; but in the upshot they always failed, and found themselves in a weak minority, not in the dominant minority of aristocratic societies. Emerson, to whom the secret of New England's history was more intimately revealed than to many who have tried to write its annals, has put it in the mouths of the early Bostonians in his later poem: —

> Old Europe groans with palaces,
> Has lords enough and more:
> We plant and build by foaming seas
> A city of the poor.
> The world was made for honest trade,—
> To plant and eat be none afraid.
>
> We grant no dukedoms to the few,
> We hold like rights, and shall;
> Equal on Sunday in the pew,
> On Monday in the mall.
> For what avail the plough or sail,
> Or land or life, if freedom fail?

Now King Charles's law of settlement was made by the squires to protect them in the labor of their serfs; for such the farm laborers and rural artisans of England then were. But the New England laws of settlement were to protect the brotherhood of the town from the incursion of poor relations, who would only be a load to carry or a nuisance to be abated. They provided that a new-comer might be "warned off"; that is, notified, if he persisted in dwelling there, that the good people would not feed his family while he went fishing or got drunk. They assigned hard conditions for him to comply with, if he wished to become a full brother to them, or a welcome foster-brother. He must be chosen to certain offices, must have paid certain taxes, or been apprenticed to some trade, etc. Consequently, there were many persons (especially unmarried women) who never did, and practically never could, acquire in a New Eng-

land town a full right to legal aid from the town treasury; and these laws, as I first knew them,— hardly mitigated at all from the rigor of the colonial period, even so late as 1863,— seemed to work, and, in fact, did work much hardship in particular cases. Their severity was alleviated early, however, in Massachusetts by the merciful provision that, if no city or town was to aid them in poverty, the State itself — and, before the Revolution, the province and the colony — would see that they had relief. Thus there arose a great army of the "State poor," whose condition and needs it was the very first of my official duties, five-and-thirty years ago, to investigate and alleviate. In doing this, in the year 1864, we found the curious fact that, of its then population, 1,250,000, or half what it now is, Massachusetts was practically permitting but little more than half to gain a pauper settlement in any town or city, thus throwing the relief of more than half a million persons, if poverty came upon them, on the State treasury, and often causing their removal many miles away from relatives and friends before aid could effectively be given.

Of course, then, it became the duty of myself and my colleagues (of whom I am now almost the sole survivor) to procure a remission of these strict laws; and this we did so effectively, from 1865 to 1876, that, instead of nearly half the population being denied a local settlement, the laws we procured left less than a fifth part unable to acquire such a settlement, that inability, however, passing away, if they continued to live in one locality instead of moving from one seaport or factory town to another. I mention all this to show that I began charitable work with a strong prepossession against strict settlement laws, and proved my faith by my works.

But, as time went on and my observation of poor-relief widened, I saw certain advantages in the modified strictness of our laws, which did gradually convert me to a belief in their value.

Let me here explain a little our system of local self-government in New England, for otherwise the full force of my argument may be lost. The small territory of Massachusetts (but eight thousand square miles in all) is divided into three hundred and fifty towns and cities, each ruling its own population under certain general laws of the State. There were fewer than this anciently, perhaps no more than two hundred and fifty when the province was first fully organized in this way; but even then the average extent of each town-

ship was less than thirty-five square miles, so that the condition of every inhabitant could readily become known, upon inquiry, by the town officers. As population increased, this became more difficult; yet the methods of taxation facilitated knowledge, and our law of settlement was largely based on taxation; the theory (rather rudely held, but still in substance sound) being that, if A had contributed to the wealth of the town, and indicated this by paying taxes for a number of years, A's family were entitled to aid in case of his death or loss of property resulting in their "distress,"— the technical term used to denote the degree of poverty justifying public relief. Now, as each town paid its own expenses by taxes raised on its land and people, the poor of each town must be charged, when aided, to the town's account, and no other. Hence each town became careful not to include the poor of another town with its own, and thus increase the bill of cost. And so strict laws of settlement allowed, and economy compelled, the exact condition, family connection, origin and character of each pauper supported or aided, to become known to the Overseers of the Poor; and any neglect on their part to acquire this knowledge was paid for, years afterward, by the town's being charged with the support of some family belonging elsewhere, but by neglect on the part of the overseers allowed to "gain a settlement" there. And, this settlement once gained, the hereditary, or "derivative," portion of the settlement law fastened that family on that town, for centuries in some instances within my knowledge.

What has been the consequence of this state of things? Not, as is sometimes charged, a quenchless desire on the part of each little town to put off its poor upon its neighbors, resulting in endless lawsuits and a general pinching of the poor. Something there was of this here and there; and the intricacy of our laws, when their execution began to be complicated by the movement of population in and out of the little centres, and by the frequent division of townships as inhabitants increased and manufactures sprang up, led to a series of judicial decisions very curious in themselves and very instructive to the sociologist. But the more general and natural consequence, in a community profoundly philanthropic, was a close inquiry into the circumstances of every case calling for public aid, so that it is quite safe to say that no population of from half a million to a million ever made and kept such full records of the family his-

tory, past career, and individual fortunes of its pauper class as Massachusetts did during the first seventy-five years of this century. Modified as the laws now are, they still compel this sort of careful inquiry; and nothing else, in my opinion, will do it habitually and universally. Since immigration has become so great a factor in the State population, and therefore the State authorities have had more and more to do with the history of the "unsettled" poor (all recent immigrants being of necessity unsettled), this inquiry has been extended to include much of the past history of persons across the Atlantic or in their peregrinations from one State to another in search of work or shunning arrest; while the system of medical outdoor relief, adopted in Massachusetts by the State more than thirty years since, brings its officials and medical agents to a knowledge of crowded life in cities, and the sanitary or unsanitary conditions of existence there.

It has now become an accepted truth of charity organization that you cannot know too much about the applicants for relief, public or private. But so essential a truth had long been acted upon by the poor-law administration of Massachusetts, and it was our strict settlement laws which made such action needful. Without this most minute inquiry there will either be much needless giving of alms, public and private, or else much neglect of worthy cases; and, generally, both these evils will exist. I have lately read how much havoc was made in New York of late, in a list of applicants for outdoor relief favorably reported by the public officers, and then turned over to the more vigilant or less partial scrutiny of the Charity Organization Society. Now such a haphazard list as came into the hands of your Charity Organization Society could hardly get into existence under our system in Massachusetts. The preliminary inquiry would have toned it down very much. There are oversights and abuses of public charity with us. As the little girl said to her schoolmate, "Accidents will happen in the best-regulated families: they have in ours"; but the spirit and demand of our system forbid them to become general. Hence it happens that, with a very liberal dispensation of charity, private and public, in Massachusetts, pauperism, in my time,— now something more than forty years,— has not increased there beyond the gain in population, and far below the gain in wealth, which is a main condition of increasing pauperism. One exception to this remark must be made. The pau-

perism connected with insanity has largely increased, because insanity itself has gained twice as fast with us as the gain in population; but even here the inquiries necessitated by our settlement laws, which apply, and always should apply, to the insane no less than the sane, have the effect, if followed up, of distributing more justly the burden of caring for the insane poor.

I have felt bound to offer these remarks because of much unenlightened criticism on our laws of pauper settlement,— such, indeed, as I would have made myself before experience had shown me how such laws practically operate,— but which I now know to be unwise, and leading, if heeded, to unsafe legislation. I would advise all States to have strict settlement laws,— not such as ours were, but something as they now are. And I observe in this State of New York, which has long had a small class of "State paupers," a disposition to make its laws stricter and more uniform.

VI.

Politics and Public Institutions.

POLITICS IN CHARITABLE AND PENAL INSTITUTIONS.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE.

John Milton long ago sounded the true note of a right administrative principle in "The Ready and Easy Way to establish a Free Commonwealth": "The other part of our freedom consists in the civil rights and advancements of every person according to his merit, the enjoyment of these never more certain, and access to them never more open, than in a free commonwealth."

1. *The Discussion in the National Conference of Charities and Correction.*— Apparently, this subject was first formally introduced into our Conferences in 1896 at Grand Rapids. In the report and papers of that year the merit system was defined, the nature of the spoils system was disclosed, the history of civil service reform was sketched, the ruinous effects of patronage methods were illustrated, and it was clearly shown that there is a vital connection between betterment of relief and correction on the one hand and the merit system on the other. Your committee will assume knowledge of that discussion, and proceed to lay before the Conference a brief and condensed summary of the results of a fresh investigation.

2. *A Comparative View of the Laws.*— A large amount of material on the subject of the State laws relative to appointments and tenure of office has been gathered and summarized by Mr. H. A. Millis, and the results published in the *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1897, and January, 1898, pp. 387–390 and 479–489. As the law furnishes the norm and discloses the social intention, it

should, first of all, be carefully studied. The silence of the law is significant as well as its declarations. We here present the salient features of the laws in relation to public institutions (1) of commonwealths and (2) of local bodies, as counties and cities and towns.

State Boards.— The boards of State institutions are usually appointed by the governor with the advice and consent of the Senate. In a few of the Southern States, however, they are appointed by the governor without the confirmation of the Senate, while in Nebraska they are elected by the General Assembly. In a few of the Western States the boards are composed of State officers. They are, with a single exception, unsalaried, or have salary only about sufficient to pay their expenses. There is some opportunity, even under the best laws, for corruption in awarding contracts for supplies. Most of the States provide for continuous boards, only a part of the members being retired at one time.

With few exceptions the States have distinct boards for the several institutions. A few States have, however, attempted to gain more efficient service by centralizing the direction of the several institutions in the hands of a single board. Texas and Minnesota have placed their two or more hospitals for the insane under the direction of a single board. Seven States (Kansas, Rhode Island, Arkansas, South Dakota, Wyoming, Iowa, and Wisconsin) have erected State boards of control for all their institutions.

With a few exceptions the legislatures have left the boards of directors free in the management of their respective institutions. They usually have full power to appoint all necessary officers and to fix their salaries. But two or three cases remain where (as in Mississippi and Nebraska) the governor appoints the superintendents of the several institutions. The legislatures have in a number of cases fixed the salaries of a part or of all the officers of the institutions. In New York the matter of fixing the salaries for the officers of the several hospitals for the insane has been placed in the hands of the Lunacy Commission.

Law of Administration of Outdoor Relief.— Usually in the North and East a special officer (or officers) appointed for that purpose administers outdoor relief, while in the South and West the township trustee, county commissioners, or some judicial officer administers it as one of his several duties. These officers are usually elected by

popular vote on party tickets. In a few States the local relieving officers are appointed, but naturally on party lines. In many cities these almoners are appointed by the municipal authorities, mayor or council.

Mr. Millis finds three general principles at work: (1) all officers administering relief serve for short times; (2) in the great majority of the Commonwealths, relief is administered by officers as one, and a minor one, of their many duties; (3) relief is administered by councilmen, selectmen, township trustees, county commissioners, justices of the peace, and county judges, who are not elected for that purpose. But it should be said, in extenuation, that good officers are often re-elected for a number of terms, and thus acquire experience.

The low degree of specialization of functions is always natural and proper where population is scattered, where there are few dependants, and where an officer devoted exclusively to one task would have very little to do. When population becomes more dense, and the number of paupers larger in a district, an officer is usually selected for a particular kind of work. Unfortunately, the old custom lingers long after it begins to produce mischief.

A few of the States, as Indiana, New York, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and perhaps others, require reports to be rendered to the central board at the capital; but there is yet no uniformity between the States, and the statistics secured are very imperfect.

Administration of the Almshouse, Local Indoor Relief.— The poor-house is under the direction of town or county officers, according as the State has the town or county system. Where the town system exists, it is under the direction of the Overseers of the Poor, whether they be selectmen or elected or appointed overseers. Where the county system exists, it is usually under the direction of the county commissioners or supervisors or the county court. There are exceptions which need not be regarded here. The board in authority usually appoints a superintendent and other officers, fixes their salaries, prescribes their powers and duties, and requires from them reports. The law generally makes partisan appointments natural, and almost inevitable.

Appointments.— The law governing appointments to State institutions of correction, as penitentiaries and reformatories, follows the same general principles as those of institutions of relief and custody.

The law relating to county and municipal prisons is in still worse condition, and invites the most corrupt conduct of partisan politics. It is this fact, together with the absence of central control, which has made our county jails a national disgrace against which members of this Conference have long protested.

There are strict limitations to the value of the study of legislation. (1) There are inherent defects in the laws. The merit system is not strongly and definitely recognized. The statutes have been drawn up by men who were educated to believe in the idea of "rotation in office," by men who were not yet forced by the growing complexity of dense urban populations to see the difference between offices of *representation* and offices of *administration*. There is much evidence to show that this distinction, essential and fundamental as it is, has not so much as suggested itself to multitudes of voters and legislators. (2) In the second place, we can never deduce from a statute book any accurate information about the actual facts of administration. We do not know whether the provisions of the code are living or dead letters. Administration is sometimes much better than the law requires. Even under a very defective and vicious system, notably good results are obtained by intelligent and devoted officials. Sometimes, and only too often, the officials manage to reveal the essential defects of the law by their mode of using it. They produce the mischief which it permits, and it is at this point the law itself must be attacked. It is manifestly unfair and unsafe to reason from the success of good men under a bad system to the merit of the system itself.

There is no way to avoid the direct investigation of the conduct of officials working under the law; and it was to this immense and delicate and difficult task that your committee addressed itself. We were under no illusions about the difficulty of the inquiry. We were aware in the beginning that we must encounter many obstacles. We did not seek any sensational disclosures nor desire to reach extreme conclusions, but only to see things as they are. It is true that previous study had demonstrated to most members of this Conference the need of modifications and amendments, but this did not excite prejudice against the host of honest and capable officers who are doing the best possible under a benighted and obsolete system, already discarded in cultured nations as fit only for feudalism and for corrupt and arbitrary monarchy.

The schedule of questions asked the correspondents for information relating to:

I. Institutions of public charity.

1. State institutions: (*a*) hospitals for the insane, (*b*) schools for the blind, (*c*) schools for the deaf-mutes, (*d*) schools for the feeble-minded, (*e*) schools for dependent children.

2. County, township (or town), and municipal charities: (*a*) outdoor relief officers, (*b*) county or town poorhouses, (*c*) hospitals or infirmaries, (*d*) homes and placing-out of dependent children.

II. Institutions for correction and restraint: —

1. State: (*a*) penitentiaries and convict prisons, (*b*) reformatories for younger offenders, (*c*) reform schools for boys and girls.

2. County and municipal: (*a*) jails, (*b*) city bridewells, houses of correction, (*c*) lock-up stations.

The kinds of information asked for were: —

I. State laws under which appointments, removals, and promotions are made.

II. Rules of administration adopted by boards of directors, trustees, etc., of State institutions.

III. Customs governing appointments, removals, and promotions in specified institutions, and the reasons for these customs, as influence of party service and favor, personal merit, fitness for the place, examinations, and tests in competition.

IV. Local sentiment on the subject, as definitely expressed by influential party leaders, societies, clubs, conventions, etc.

Your committee was fairly successful in securing information from New England, New York, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Virginia, Maryland, Louisiana, Nebraska, Ohio, Alabama, North Carolina, South Carolina, California, and many significant hints from other States.* This information is in no case exhaustive, but it is sufficient to illustrate the nature and secret of the forces which tend to weaken and impair the administration of public charity and correction. The extreme divisions of the country are represented in the replies.

A startling yet very natural revelation of the tendency of the "spoils system" came out in our correspondence, and showed that system to be what it is,— a system of terrorism, under which the best

*Corrections and additional information and illustrations would be gratefully received by C. R. Henderson, University of Chicago.

and bravest men quail. In almost every instance we have been in honor obliged to omit the names of our informants, and even the States from which our knowledge comes. Most of our inquiries have remained unanswered, partly from indifference, partly from fear of the party lash. If our investigation has accomplished nothing more, it has been the means of stimulating thought about the "spoils system" in all parts of our country. This system cannot bear the light, it does not improve upon close acquaintance, and it courts quiet and solitude.

A well-known member of this Conference writes: "I have thought much of the substance of your request and of the good that could be accomplished by a full record of what might be told, and there is much that should not appear in print and knowledge of which should not be extended. And the result of my thought is that I know very little that should be published, and that little should not be read." Other trustworthy and amiable correspondents have courteously answered our inquiries on the principle that "it is better to write nothing than not to write."

Conclusions in Relation to State Institutions for the Insane.— While all generalizations are somewhat uncertain and subject to discount and exception, the evidence of our correspondence seems to show that the "merit system" is making progress in State institutions for the insane. Even where the law is still based on the ancient notion of rotation in office, the folly of acting on this notion is here apparent to the least instructed mind. Popular intelligence has made it impossible to promote prize fighters as attendants upon the insane. Usually, public opinion requires at least a diploma from some sort of a medical college as a condition of appointment as superintendent of a hospital. The medical profession has considerable influence on the appointments, and every year becomes more critical and observant. Further reforms may be expected from this source. The numerous friends of the insane are jealously watchful of the treatment of their unfortunate relatives. The very fact that members of influential families are frequently under the same management as that which cares for the dependent insane is some security for more humane treatment of the poor.

But our investigation reveals even here the deplorable and humiliating discovery that governors and directors occasionally sacrifice the interests of science and humanity to their own political advan-

tage; and that campaign pledges are sometimes kept at the cost of the most sacred claims of the helpless and suffering. Enlightened public opinion is in such cases actually set at defiance by a powerful political ring.

In relation to State institutions for the blind and for deaf-mutes a similar condition prevails. Public opinion is directed upon these schools. The children frequently come from families of social influence. There is an obvious need of professional preparation for the teaching task. The absurdity of rotation in office is palpable. The teaching profession becomes daily more critical and jealous of the admission to such service of raw and undisciplined recruits from other callings.

Yet your committee could give instances of flagrant and wicked abuse of the power of appointment and discharge. We could cite examples of governors avenging themselves in the hour of partisan victory, by the wholesale discharge of competent superintendents, simply on partisan grounds. A system which permits such outrages, which leaves room for such scandals, must be fundamentally unsound and ripe for reform.

Judgments relating to State Punitive and Correctional Institutions.— In the case of prisons and penitentiaries the mitigating factors are not so great. Society naturally does not have the same feelings of compassion for thieves and burglars as for the unfortunate insane, blind, and deaf-mutes.

Only too generally,— almost as a matter of course,— when a dominant party falls into a minority, the warden of a penitentiary prepares to pull down his party flag, box his household goods, and surrender the keys to his successor, the appointee of the victors, to whom belong, as of right, the spoils.

Happily, we have much evidence that a more intelligent public opinion is gathering head against this monstrous doctrine. It becomes more clear to the public, as it has long been clear to scientific men, that the training and reformation of criminals is one of the most difficult branches of pedagogic art, that the administration of prisons and reformatories calls for the highest order of business ability, that the complications of interests, of trade-unions and manufacturers, involve problems which only tactful men, carefully selected and thoroughly trained, can even approximately solve.

The literature essential for a prison director to know is consider-

able, and the scientific methods of study of criminal characteristics cannot be mastered quickly by men who have merely left another business for a few years to enjoy the salary for a service whose very elements they have never studied.

We greet with hope the evidence that the more advanced States have begun to embody in their laws the principle that men must be chosen to these positions for their fitness, and retained upon proof of competency and devotion. If this Conference stands for anything, it is for this principle.

Judgments relating to Local Institutions of Relief, as Poorhouses, Out-relief, City Hospitals, etc.— Your committee has sought diligently for information on this branch of the subject, but our immediate correspondence has given us only a modest amount of new information. But, alas! the reports of State Boards of Charity and Correction, and numerous discussions of this Conference, supply only too much evidence that the spoils system is bearing deadly fruit in this field. The evil is notorious. Students of charity in Europe, familiar with our reports, are astonished and grieved that we permit these abuses so generally and so persistently. It amounts to a national disgrace.

Judgments relating to Local Institutions of Detention and Punishment,— as Jails, Lock-ups, etc.— It is when we come to the county jail that we touch the lowest deep of our national dishonor. A pauper may be pitied, though neglected; but for the jail-bird any cage is good enough, and any sheriff or turnkey is competent. We need another John Howard to sink a plummet into this abyss. Think of the iniquity which lies hidden in a system of elective sheriffs whose income is to be derived from contracts for feeding and transporting prisoners! Under such a system the genius of a Howard might become idiotic and the sturdy conscience bend like a willow wand.

It is bad enough that the system exists, worse yet that so few see that it is monstrous, worst of all that the idolatry of rotation in office makes a reform seem to be a Utopian dream, a vision of fanatics.

Conclusions.— We do not affirm that the "spoils system" under which we live always, or even in the majority of cases, produces disastrous results, tragedies of loss and misery. Such an assertion would be sheer calumny. Many influences prevent the spoils system from

producing all its legitimate fruits,— public opinion, humanity, the pervasive influence of civilization and religion even in the minds and hearts of partisans. Party interest itself often requires good appointments, and secures long tenure of the competent, especially where — as in hospitals for the insane — special training is absolutely necessary.

Mr. George William Curtis, of blessed memory, quoted Professor Von Holst's Constitutional History of the United States on this very point. Senator Macy had declared that "the politicians of New York . . . see nothing wrong in the rule that to the victor belong the spoils of the enemy"; and Professor Von Holst adds, "From that hour this maxim has remained an inviolable principle of American politicians; and it is owing only to the astonishing vitality of the people of the United States, and to the altogether unsurpassed and unsurpassable favor of their natural conditions, that the State has not succumbed under the onerous burden of the curse."

Mr. Philip C. Garrett has exactly expressed the point at issue: "When the result is possible, cases will occur of the very worst consequences which the fancy can picture or reasoning predict. Any system whatever, capable of great abuses, gives rise to those abuses under a condition of public indifference, and always will."

European experience has given a conclusive demonstration of the superiority of the examination and probation method over our time-dishonored and unprincipled method of "rotation in office." Steadily, the merit system has gained ground in our national civil service, in the best municipal administration, and in our public school system. It is incredible that our institutions of charity and correction will long linger in the rear, exposed to all the damaging forces of the spoils system. Local reforms are among the most difficult and important.

The evidence before your committee points in the direction of radical changes in the relation of the commonwealth to town and county administration. The merit system is gaining ground far more rapidly in State institutions than in local institutions. How, under present conditions, can the merit system displace the spoils system in county poorhouses and jails? It seems impossible.

The history of poor-relief and local prisons in England at this point is extremely instructive. There was a time in the mother country when local jails and almshouses were in as chaotic and

disgraceful a condition as that of which we are now ashamed. To-day England is in a very hopeful situation. What is the cause of this transformation? It lies in the transfer of regulation from the local authorities to the Home Office of the kingdom. There is a central agency for supervision of local prisons and poor-relief, although parishes and unions retain all necessary local power.

Local administration of jails and poorhouses and out-relief will never reform itself. Under our legal system, national direction is not to be thought of; but State supervision and regulation are both possible and necessary.

One of the difficulties in the way of this reform will be to persuade the people that the care of poorhouses and jails requires any special ability and preparation. A study of reports and investigations will show that numerous scandals and abuses have grown out of the incompetency, the inexperience, the baseness of local administrators, and out of the absence of adequate State inspection and regulation. Why is local service so inferior? (1) Because, on the average, local officers have not the ability and training of State officials; (2) they are more likely to be frequently changed; (3) they are more exposed to direct pressure and temptation from their neighbors and partisan leaders. They need to have over them an impersonal authority to which they are responsible, and whose law excludes the interference of spoilsmen.

We have the beginnings of this central supervision and regulation in our State Boards; and we have only to extend the principle to secure a gradual and desirable improvement. Edmund Burke, in a speech of reform on the civil list in 1780, said: "In a plan of reformation it would be one of my maxims that, when I know of an establishment which may be subservient to useful purposes, and which, at the same time, from its discretionary nature, is liable to a very great perversion from these purposes, I would limit the quantity of the power that might be so abused."

CHARLES R. HENDERSON, *Chairman*,
JOSEPHINE SHAW LOWELL,
JAMES MASSIE,
J. G. THORP,
HENRY C. RANNEY,
FRANK A. FETTER,
Committee.

THE SPOILS SYSTEM.

BY HON. CARL SCHURZ.

I have a complaint to make against the committee who arranged the proceedings of this evening. I had been invited, and accepted that invitation, simply to make a few remarks in the course of the discussion on the report which has been submitted to you. I now find myself put down on the printed programme for the formal address of the occasion,— an important task, which I should certainly not have undertaken, had I been asked to do so. I shall stick to the original understanding; and, instead of rising to a general presentation of the subject, I have confined my preparation to a few points which I thought the report and the discussion would leave to me. If thus I disappoint the expectations excited by the programme, you must charge the disappointment to the committee. I hand it over to your tender mercies.

The report before you sets forth with clearness and emphasis that most of the evils and abuses existing here and there in the administration of charitable and penal institutions are owing in a greater or less degree, if not wholly, to the prevalence of what is commonly called the political spoils system,— in other words, to the fact that in many instances the officers at the head of such institutions, as well as their subordinates, are appointed not on account of their mental and moral fitness for the duties to be performed, but to reward them for services they have rendered to their political party or to the leaders thereof, or to enable and encourage them to render further political services to such party or such leaders.

I shall not attempt to discuss the various peculiar kinds of injury that have been done to charitable and penal institutions in that way, for as to them many of you are better informed than I am. I will merely observe that, while spoils politics do infinite mischief wherever and whenever they are injected into administration, there is a reason why the mischief they do to charitable or penal institutions must be condemned as especially shameful and heinous. We hold robbery to be a crime, and open our penitentiaries to pickpockets who steal our purses and to burglars who rifle our houses. But we have an es-

pecially indignant curse for the villain who robs a poor widow or who despoils helpless orphans. Decent people despise as a disreputable malefactor the public officer who mismanages a post-office or a custom-house by corruptly misusing it as a partisan agency. But we should have a peculiarly fierce anathema for the politician, whether of high or low degree, whether governor, boss, or mere henchman, who will deliberately subject a hospital or an insane asylum, or a poorhouse or a reformatory,— institutions filled with more or less helpless unfortunates especially requiring human sympathy,— to the demoralizing, corrupt, and rapacious rule of spoils politics. Wicked and detestable everywhere, the spoils system is peculiarly cruel and criminal when applied to institutions in which the most unselfish philanthropy and the wisest benevolence should exercise exclusive rule.

Your report admits, and I certainly do not mean to deny, that persons appointed or employed in our charitable or penal institutions under the methods of spoils politics — that is, for political reasons and by arbitrary favor — will not necessarily always mismanage everything, and steal whatever they can lay their hands on. On the contrary, there have been instances — and perhaps a good many — of persons so appointed, who, when feeling the weight of solemn responsibility upon them, were moved by a proper sense of duty, kept clear of dishonest practices, and developed considerable capacity in the discharge of their functions. But we observe also a great many others so appointed who are everything they should not be; while a third class consists of spoils politicians in office who, without being conspicuously wicked or absolutely inert, do just enough to establish an apparent claim to their salaries by a sort of perfunctory half-performance of their tasks.

Whatever the relative proportion of these three different classes may be, no sensible person will deny that the efficient and scrupulously honest officers appointed under the spoils system are such in spite of their official origin, and deserve credit for it; while the drones and the thieves are the natural product of a method of appointment which puts persons into public place with the understanding that they are put there for reasons with which their qualifications for the duties to be performed have nothing to do, and that they may expect to be sustained in place by the influences that put them there, so long as they continue to serve their party or their

patrons well, no matter what their shortcomings in other respects may be, provided they do not commit the unpardonable sin of getting badly caught and scandalously exposed. It is a system calculated to lead into dangerous temptations ordinarily good men, and to make downright scoundrels of more shaky characters, who under favorable circumstances might have been saved.

What is the remedy? Whenever we hear of a branch of the public service or of a public institution being grossly mismanaged by persons who owe their positions to political influence, the common sense of the people jumps at the conclusion that the branch of the service or the public institution concerned must be "taken out of politics." What does this mean? It means that the selection of persons for office or employment, as well as their promotion to higher posts, be placed under such rules, regulations, and restrictions as will rigidly exclude therefrom political influence or favoritism, and as will secure place and preferment only to those who in some tangible manner demonstrate the superiority of their fitness for the work to be done. This is commonly called the merit system, for the general introduction and maintenance of which the civil service reformers have been working these many years. And in their behalf I may say that, while they are far from representing civil service reform to be the source and substance of all reforms, they do affirm that without it the reforming of the abuses which spring from the intrusion of party politics and favoritism into the conduct of administration will be extremely difficult, if not utterly impossible.

I may safely assume that the distinguished audience before me are in general sympathy with the civil service reform movement. I am happy to say that, as an abundance of evidence proves, that movement, which in its beginnings was derided by the practical politicians as a harmless hobby of a few amiable but somewhat crack-brained visionaries, has by hard and persistent fight won in our public concerns a tremendous vantage-ground, from which the spoils politicians with increasing fury now vainly strive to dislodge it, and is every day becoming more and more firmly intrenched in the intelligence and moral sense of the American people. Any effort on my part to persuade you of the virtues of the merit system in general would therefore be uncalled for. But I may be permitted to invite attention to a few points which are not always kept in clear view by many of those who, in a general way, abhor spoils politics and favor the merit system.

The idea is here and there entertained that, in order to disarm political favoritism and to furnish to the public service a mentally and morally better qualified class of public servants, an examination of candidates selected by the appointing power, as to their proficiency in certain branches of knowledge, and the exclusion of those who do not come up to a certain mark, will be sufficient. This is a mistake. Pass examinations of this kind existed in the federal service for many years before the introduction of the merit system, and proved a complete failure for the simple reason that they did not exclude from appointments and promotions the rule of political influence and favoritism. In the first place, the admission to those examinations might be determined by influence or favor, and then the pass examinations uniformly degenerated into mere farce, those most favored by influence pretty regularly succeeding, and the unfortunates without influence regularly failing. Under that very system spoils politics actually flourished in the service to an extent which at last made the adoption of the present civil service law appear indispensable.

It is a matter of experience with those who have had practically to do with the solution of this problem on a large scale that no reliable means have as yet been discovered to exclude influence and favoritism from appointments and promotions, except examinations that are competitive ; that is, examinations which are open to everybody conforming to certain requirements as to age, health, and good repute, and in which every candidate has an equal chance with every other candidate, and which give those who pass the tests of merit and fitness most successfully the best title to appointment,— competition open to all and the prize to the best man. This competitive system has, I repeat, proved the only safeguard against the intrusion of political influence and favoritism that can be trusted, for the reason that only when the appointing officer is actually confined in his selection to certain persons whose qualifications have been shown to be superior by an examination or test not under his control he will be exempt from the pressure of influence in favor of other persons,— pressure which is always trying, which only the bravest resist, and to which many, who are otherwise well disposed, weakly succumb.

All this is readily admitted in theory ; but, when it comes to the practical operation of the system, we find now and then some objec-

tions to overcome even in our own household. Let me illustrate what I mean. Imagine a person of eminent fitness and high purpose is put at the head of one of our charitable or correctional institutions either as single chief or as a member of a commission,— a thing which, I am glad to know, may sometimes happen, either by design or by mistake. Imagine our good friend finds under him a place of some importance to be filled, for which he thinks he knows just the right man. Imagine, then, that in pursuance of the civil service law our good friend is confronted with the presentation, by the civil service commission, of three candidates who have come highest out of the competitive examination, one of whom is to be chosen to fill the vacant place in question, and that the person the chief had in his mind's eye as most desirable is not among the three. This sorely staggers our good friend. The disappointment irritates him. Much as he favors civil service reform, he jumps at the conclusion that this is carrying the thing too far; that he, after all, himself knows best what kind of men he needs, that he should not be kept from getting those men, and that the civil service law should be modified to that effect. This is no hypothetical case. I have known several such, some even connected with our charitable institutions.

The reasoning of our good friend is plausible. Why should so able and high-principled a chief not have the power of free personal selection? But now suppose it be given him. What will happen? As soon as it is known that he has that power of free appointment, the party boss or the State or county committee or some other political power will pounce upon him to recommend for that place — nay, to demand that place for — some meritorious henchman who must be provided for. And that demand is urged with an insolence and persistency of pressure which it requires the whole fortitude of our good friend to withstand. He may, indeed, have that fortitude in an exceptional degree, and actually carry his point. But it will have cost him no end of time, and taxed his endurance at the expense of his working power to the utmost to do so; and then he will discover that he has made the political potentates, whose will he has baffled, his sworn enemies, to vex and hamper and obstruct him during the remainder of his official existence.

And then, when he has gone through this ordeal, it will dawn upon him that it would have saved him ever so much time and trouble, had

he permitted the restrictions of the competitive merit system to serve him as a protecting bulwark against the pressure of influence and the intrusion of the party potentate in his work. It will occur to him that the competitive merit system would, after all, have been likely to furnish him a man nearly, perhaps quite, as good as the one of his own selection; for it is the general experience that the merit system, as a rule, does furnish a very good class of public servants. It will occur to him, further, that, while he had strength of will enough to resist the pressure of influence, many others in like situations, although well enough disposed, might not have that courage and firmness, but would, as according to common experience a majority of them do, use the freedom of selection they coveted, not in appointing persons chosen by themselves, but persons imposed upon them by party bosses or other spoil-mongers. And our good friend will at last conclude from all this how well-advised the spoils politicians are, when they use the very pretence that executive officers know best what kind of men they want for subordinates, and should be left free to select them, as their favorite argument against civil service reform.

This experience will be sufficient to convince our good friend that the restrictions imposed upon him by the competitive merit system, although they may cause an occasional disappointment, are, in their general effect, a great blessing, not only to departmental chiefs, but to all those whom the public service is to serve, and that the enjoyment of this blessing is well worth some personal self-denial on the part of executive officers. The wisest among them appreciate this the most keenly. I have personally known of many a high officer in the public service who, when entering upon his duties, was extremely impatient of the restraints imposed on him by the civil service law, who impetuously demanded all sorts of changes in the rules, to give him greater freedom of action, but who, as his official experience accumulated, withdrew those demands one after another, until, at the close of his term, he saw ample reason for confessing that the restrictions of the competitive system can hardly be too severe for the good of the very men who kick against them.

The same line of reasoning refutes another complaint that is made as to the efficacy of the existing civil service laws. We are told that, their application being confined to the subordinate positions, they do not improve appointments to the higher offices, and are

therefore, not going far enough, of very small usefulness. This, again, is a mistake. It is true appointments to the higher executive offices, owing to legal obstacles as well as to other considerations, are still at the discretion of the appointing power, and therefore exposed to political influence and to the intrusion of spoils politics. But it is also true that, where the merit system exists and is faithfully enforced as to the subordinate positions, it is by no means without its effect upon appointments to the higher ones.

Why have places in the administration of charitable or correctional institutions been so much in demand with politicians, even if they carried only small salaries or none at all with them? Not because the work itself was particularly congenial to the minds of the machine hacks, or because any of them were ambitious of fame as active philanthropists, but because such positions commanded patronage which the politician could turn to his party's or his own advantage. That patronage was of two kinds,— appointments to subordinate salaried places and contracts for supplies, buildings, repairs, and the like. Now, as soon as you take that patronage away,— that is, as soon as you strip the executive heads, by the introduction of the merit system, of the power to distribute places as patronage, and regulate the giving out of contracts so as to make favoritism and collusion difficult,— so soon those high positions will be deprived of the greatest charm they have had for the machine politician's mind. There will be much less hunger for them among the spoils seekers. The boss and the campaign committee will learn to consider them of comparatively little consequence, and may even conclude to pander a little to the moral sense of the community, by permitting them to fall into the hands of persons who indulge themselves in the visionary notion that partisan politics have no rightful place at all in charitable or correctional work. Moreover, when the merit system is firmly established in the administrative machinery and the tenure of efficient public servants has thereby become more permanent, proper rules for their promotion from lower to higher grades will be recognized as a necessary part of the system, and the practice of putting persons who have risen from modest stations by virtue of superior merit into the highest positions will become more frequent, which will be an improvement of incalculable value.

It therefore appears to me — and I would urge this as a point of

considerable importance — that, the less power in the line of patronage is attached to the positions at the head of charitable and penal institutions, the more likely those positions will be to be filled with persons of high quality; and, evidently, the establishment of the merit system as to the subordinate places will powerfully contribute to that result.

I am well aware that in some instances much good has been accomplished in the way of rescuing charitable and penal institutions from the blight of partisan politics by vigorous demonstrations of public opinion, without the introduction of the merit system. The exposure of especially revolting scandals may violently arouse the popular conscience, and so frighten the spoils politicians that they drop their prey and run to cover. Beneficial reforms may be effected on such occasions. But sad experience teaches us that reform by spasm seldom lasts long unless the propitious moment has been taken advantage of carefully to close the avenues by which the forces of demoralization and corruption may again creep in. The excitements of the public mind are transitory. Popular watchfulness soon relaxes, while the necessary element in our politics is always on the alert to seize its opportunities. It is vain to expect the permanent exclusion of the evil of partisan politics from your institutions of charity and correction so long as you have not permanently excluded from them the element of patronage. Wherever there is a chance for spoil, there the spoils politician will be. And nothing is more effective in destroying the chaser for spoil than the competitive merit system. Whoever does not yet believe this need only look at the desperate efforts now being made by the spoils politicians to upset the establishment of the merit system in the federal service,— efforts which President McKinley has so far faithfully withstood.

To maintain what we have gained and to extend this salutary reform over fields still waiting for it, the steady and active co-operation of the enlightened public opinion of the country is necessary. How strongly that opinion has come to our support I have already mentioned. But much is still to be gained. There is a paragraph in the report of your committee which has great significance in that respect. After describing its efforts to obtain from different parts of the country certain information about the play of partisan politics in the work of charity and correction, the committee says: —

A startling yet very natural revelation of the tendency of the "spoils system" came out in our correspondence, and showed that system to be what it is,— a system of terrorism, under which the best and bravest men quail. In almost every instance we have been in honor obliged to omit the names of our informants, and even the States from which our knowledge comes. Most of our inquiries have remained unanswered, partly from indifference, partly from fear of the party lash. If our investigation has accomplished nothing more, it has been the means of stimulating thought about the "spoils system" in all parts of our country. This system cannot bear the light, it does not improve upon close acquaintance, and it courts quiet and solitude.

It is very much to be hoped that this organization will never relax its efforts to disturb that "quiet and solitude" by vigorous agitation until the "best and bravest," and even those who have consciences without belonging to the very best and bravest, cease to quail; until every man and every woman in the land is taught that we have hospitals to take care of the sick, insane asylums to cure the insane, and houses of correction to discipline and improve the vicious, and not merely to feed a lot of hungry political cormorants; until good citizens are found everywhere honest and public-spirited enough to call a spade a spade, a fraud a fraud, and a corrupt politician a scoundrel, and to sign their names to it; and until every man possessing political power, whatever his rank, is made clearly to understand that he who subjects our hospitals and insane asylums and houses of correction to the iniquities of spoils politics does a thing which, in the estimation of his fellow-citizens as well as according to every just code of morals, is fully as bad as robbing a church.

CIVIL SERVICE REFORM.

BY MRS. C. R. LOWELL.

We need in New York, above all things, enthusiasm for the moral principles which make the "spoils" system an impossibility.

Civil service reform is not a device for getting fairly good public officers: it is a means of salvation for our people; and we need, throughout our State, faith in the moral qualities upon which it is based,— in justice, truth, honor, and duty. We need in public life the qualities which it creates and fosters, the qualities upon which depend the national welfare: we need intelligence, honesty, industry, and energy.

For four generations in this State the character of the people has been sapped at the root; and the inevitable consequence is to be seen in the low moral tone in public matters which is to be found among us, and which is the worst thing we have to contend against.

Mr. Eaton, in his report on "The Spoils System and Civil Service Reform in the Custom-house and Post-office in New York," made to President Hayes in 1881, quotes from Parton's Life of Jackson the following condemnation of our State: "From the early days of its adhesion to the Union, its politics have been involved, imbittered, and, I may add, ignoble, to an unexampled degree." And Mr. Eaton adds: "Unfortunately for the politics of New York, one of her first great politicians and officers was the most adroit and unscrupulous political manipulator the country has produced. Aaron Burr was our first partisan despot. . . . The 'Burrian Code,' as Mr. Parton calls it, . . . is declared by him to contain, among others, these fundamental principles: —

"1. Politics is a game, the prizes of which are offices and contracts. . . .

"5. Fidelity to party is the sole virtue of the politician. . . .

"19. The end and aim of the professional politician is to keep great men down and put little men up. Little men, owing all to the wire-puller, will be governed by him. Great men, having ideas and convictions, are perilous even as tools."

Seventy-six years ago Tammany Hall's influence began to be felt.

Mr. Eaton says: "In 1822 it began active interest in politics. In 1827 it dominated the primary elections."

Our people have thus been subject to the degrading influences of political corruption for more than one hundred years; they have eaten into our very souls, and we must expect the recovery to be long in proportion. There are, however, some immediate practical steps that should be taken in New York to protect the various classes of institutions of charity and correction; and I will briefly enumerate them: —

1. The State institutions must be protected from the attacks of the spoilsmen, for which the "Black Law" has opened the way. To show the situation, I will read parts of a letter from one of the managers of a State Insane Hospital. It is dated May 3, 1898: —

> . . . The inquiries you make have, I presume, reference to what I may be able to write about the spoils system as illustrated by the late attempt in our legislature to capture, by means of a very innocent-appearing bill, the managing boards of our State hospitals for the insane, that they may be made to subserve the uses of degraded partisanship. . . .
>
> The party machines, both Democratic and Republican, in the counties of the State, are, I am assured, as corrupt and as fully charged with the purposes of rule or ruin as were ever the corresponding machines in New York City. The demagogues in the rural districts are very apt and ready scholars, and quickly fall in line with the plans and methods of the political bosses in your city. There is the same method of packing conventions with delegates chosen by a self-styled caucus of three or four men seated at a table in a drinking saloon. The same sort of control is exercised over the organization by the district or county chairman, who appoints the temporary chairman, who appoints the committee on credentials, who name the members of convention, regardless of any regularity or irregularity in the choice made by their constituents. So that a county or district boss controls the organization of the party, and thus attains despotic power in the councils thereof.
>
> In 1896, before the passage of the present insanity law, the Republican machine in —— and —— Counties had already fixed upon the managers for the insane hospital to be appointed by Governor Morton. Governors always depend upon the senators and assemblymen of a district to recommend to them persons for local appointments. The Republican machine in —— County named three Republicans of the seven in the board of managers. The Republican machine in —— County named one, myself; and they, in doing so, made an enormous blunder. With four Republicans and three Democrats in the board, the Republican machines thought they had control, and laid down and openly announced their programme. The treasurer was to be forced to resign, and in his place was to be put a man who would by intimidation bulldoze about one hundred employees at the hospital into voting the Republican ticket. The superintendent of the

hospital, by arts familiar to political heelers, was to be browbeaten, nagged, and worried and insulted until his sense of self-respect should compel him to resign. With him would also go the steward, his appointee. The board would then put in as superintendent a country doctor already selected, who had no more qualifications for the position than any other cross-roads doctor. He would be merely a manikin. He would appoint a steward, also already selected, who would make purchases in those mysterious ways unknown to outsiders, but perfectly familiar to political thieves of every grade; and *commissions* small, but frequently recurring, would be the order of the day, "tips" would be privately conveyed to dealers in groceries, provisions, clothing, etc., and those too honest to take such hints would find very soon that their goods were not wanted at any price. Now all this I find to have been the subject of conversation among those quiet men, silent listeners, but quick to learn, who in every party are always keeping themselves well informed of the "true inwardness" of affairs.

Of course, such things could never be established by any evidence admissible only in a court at law; but it is none the less tangible and well founded.

In this particular case the machine itself was rather garrulous: it could not, at least it did not, keep its secrets very well. All its well-laid plans have come to naught, however, because I have played the "traitor," and refused to do its bidding.

The three Democrats with myself intend to keep the hospital upon strictly non-partisan methods. . . .

I have thus given you in outline mostly the reply you desire touching upon the points of your letter.

The local sentiment regarding all this sort of proceeding is, with the better part of the community, wholly opposed to it at every stage; for these machine men obtain their most numerous supporters among the corrupt classes, the vicious and saloon element, and all others of the degraded sort, with no conscience and no sense of responsibility as citizens. The Republicans in —— County, for instance, are in revolt against their machine; and its power is likely to be overthrown in the next campaign. I need not say — for you will readily infer it as true — that the county bosses are always in close affiliation with and in cordial co-operation with the two head bosses in New York, Croker and Platt. . . .

To save the State institutions, we need, as appears, public virtue in high places, and the repeal of the "Black Law."

2. In the county institutions the officials having control must be selected in accordance with the provision of the constitution requiring that "appointments and promotions in the civil service of the State, and of all the civil divisions thereof (including cities and villages), shall be made according to merit and fitness, to be ascertained, so far as practicable, by examinations, which, so far as practicable, shall be competitive," and that "laws shall be passed to provide for the enforcement of this section."

Four legislatures have met and adjourned since the adoption of

the constitution; but no laws have been passed in accordance with this mandatory section, and the system of appointing officers of county institutions continues what it has always been. We need, then, a public demand which will force the legislature of 1899 to obey the constitution, and take these offices "out of politics."

Besides this, however, we need a general law (like the special laws we have already for some of our counties) giving the sheriffs a salary for the care of the county jails, and thus removing from them the temptation to run the jails in such a way as will bring them in the most money, and making it possible to get and keep experienced officers as superintendents of the jails.

3. In regard to appointments in our city institutions, our situation is peculiar. There are three laws, the "Black Law," the City Charter, and chapter 186 of the laws of 1898, under which appointments have been made during the past six months; and authorities disagree as to which law is in operation in this city, so that I shall not refer further to that branch of the subject.

For the city institutions we need efficient, honest, expert management. We need the enlightened and sympathetic interest of the public, and we need generous appropriations, all of which you heard last evening, with much more which was very interesting, upon which I wish to comment a little.

We, in this city, are, as is well known to you, in the hands of Tammany Hall, and, as is equally well known to you, Tammany Hall has proved itself for many years to be a wicked, self-seeking, corrupt, and corrupting organization. Yet it is a fact that at this moment our department of charities is in better hands and in better condition than it has been at any time since I first knew it, twenty-two years ago. Commissioner Kellar made several inconsistent statements last evening. He declared himself to be a genuine Tammany Democrat. He said he intended to run his department on business principles. He said that, were it not for the civil service law, he should fill the offices with Tammany Democrats recommended by district leaders; and he said that the only system he believed in was a system that got things *done*. I think the explanation of Commissioner Kellar's confidence that he could run his department on business principles and get things done by means of Tammany officials, recommended by district leaders, is that he has not had any experience of the results of that kind of appointment; and I think it

is a blessed thing that there is a civil service law, and that Commissioner Kellar believes, as he said, in obeying it,— a blessed thing both for him and for the poor people under his charge.

To us, who call ourselves reformers, while we rejoice that Commissioner Kellar is a man who believes in obeying the law, it is humiliating to have to confess that the majority of the "so-called reform board" which had charge of the department of charities during the three years before January, 1898, did *not* believe in obeying the law; and the result was bad for the sick people and the poor, who suffered in consequence, and bad for the cause of good city government.

The following extract from a letter of an ex-civil service commissioner of New York City throws some light on the administration of the Department of Charities of that city during 1895–96–97: —

> . . . The Civil Service Commission kept close watch to prevent evasions of the rules, but, on more than one occasion, was estopped by the asseveration of the Charities Department. Although the Civil Service Commission, with the evidence before it, had every reason to doubt the statements of the department, and no reason to change its opinion because of them, it can be understood that the position was a delicate one. My own opinion is that the Board of Charities under the presidency of Mr. —— was most inefficiently administered, and that the reason for said inefficiency was the political activity of Mr. ——, and his continuous effort to appoint for political reasons alone. . . . I have had evidence that even the better paid employees, who could only be taken from an eligible list, were induced to join political associations and to become more or less active political workers, under threat, I suppose, of removal. . . .

In fact, the reformers and the Tammany man have equally been inconsistent and untrue to themselves. In the latter case this inconsistency is cause for rejoicing, and in the former it is cause for bitter sorrow. Had the reformers been true to reform, I believe we should have had to-day in the city of New York a government as good as that of any city in Europe.

And this brings me back to where I began, to the statement that what we need, above all, in this State is a moral awakening; and we need *genuine* civil service reform because it will help us to this awakening,— because it creates and fosters honesty, justice, good morals, and self-respect, not only in the civil service, but among the people.

We have in the State approximately 5,000 civil servants and in the city approximately 31,000; 36,000 men and women who, with their families, are subject to the constant and direct influence of whatever system of appointment may be in force at a given time.

Consider the different influence upon these men of the spoils and merit systems, and of their influence upon all who come in contact with them.

Imagine these men and women, appointed because they have a "pull" of one kind or another, knowing that they will keep their places only by neglecting the work they have sworn to do, and by doing the bidding of the men who got them their appointments,— knowing (and bitterly resenting it, too) that honesty and efficiency and devotion to duty will not save them from removal,— men and women *forced* to be dishonest, whether they like it or not. (Do you remember the pathetic statement of the policeman at the Lexow investigation? "I was an honest man before I went on the force.")

But imagine, I say, these 36,000 citizens of New York under the spoils system, holding office on the terms I have described, and these same 36,000 men and women appointed to office because they have proved themselves fit for the places they fill in a fair, open trial with worthy competitors, doing their work honestly, and knowing that so long as they do it honestly they will remain in office, and that they must do it honestly or they will be dismissed. The difference in them under these two systems is that between fawning, imbittered, dishonest, anxious, miserable, incompetent slaves, and fearless, self-respecting, industrious, upright, efficient public officers, proud of themselves, proud of their work, proud of their country; while the difference of the influence of the two systems among the people at large is in the end the difference between "the living and the dying nations."

VII.

Immigration and Interstate Migration.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON IMMIGRATION AND INTERSTATE MIGRATION.

BY RICHARD GUENTHER, OSHKOSH, WIS., CHAIRMAN.

In a paper which I read at the session of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections at Grand Rapids, Mich., 1896, I said that a careful study of the then existing laws relative to the regulation of immigration to the United States will convince unprejudiced minds that no additional legislation is required to check immigration; that what is needed is to supply sufficient funds to enable the United States authorities to carry out existing law; that the educational test advocated by many, to my mind, is entirely uncalled for; that, if it should be deemed advisable by the people of the United States to prescribe an educational test with reference to the naturalization of aliens, then this question should be discussed in connection with naturalization, but not with reference to the immigration laws. I occupy the same position to-day.

No one can be more desirous than I am to exclude all elements that are a menace to us. But I am not prepared to say that a physically and mentally sound person of good moral character is unfit to be admitted to this country simply because he or she never had the opportunity to acquire a school education.

The main object of the agitation is to decrease the number of immigrants from the selfish and incorrect motive that they encroach upon the earning facilities of the American laborer. The fact that the new arrivals are not only producers, but necessarily consumers, is overlooked. It is as apparent to my mind as daylight is to my eyes that the professional labor agitators are responsible for this

crusade against immigration. As they see no other way to prevent foreigners from coming, they conclude that the educational test would at least be partially effective. They would prefer to stop immigration entirely if they could; but, not being able to do this, they have hit upon the educational test as accomplishing their desire in part at least.

United States senators and members of the House of Representatives have been enlisted to carry out the mandates of these self-constituted leaders of public opinion; and, in advocating this new restriction, they proclaim that it is done only for the higher glory of the people of the United States.

They tell us that this law is not directed against the Germans or Scandinavians, and will hardly affect the Irish, but that they want to exclude the Italians, the Russian Hebrews, and the Hungarians, because these people are bad and corrupt. What do you care? they say. You are not an Italian nor a Russian Hebrew nor a Hungarian.

Such utterances as these are entirely unworthy of enlightened people. The persons against whom these restrictive laws are ostensibly aimed belong to our own, the Caucasian race,— to people who have given to the world leaders in intellect and civilization. In religion, art, and science these people have been the peers of any people on the globe.

There are good Italians and bad ones, good Hungarians and bad ones, as well as good Americans and bad ones. Under existing laws we can exclude all bad people, whether they come from Germany, Sweden, Russia, or elsewhere; but I maintain that a man is not bad because he has not learned to read and write.

In answer to the sophistry employed by the advocates of this un-American restrictive policy, let me quote the words of William Lloyd Garrison, of Massachusetts: —

> A nation of immigrants and the children of immigrants, having obtained possession of the continent, are considering the feasibility of barring out other immigrants. They assume to have the right to determine who shall be admitted hereafter and who shall not. It is pertinent to demand the evidence of their authority. The United States is a considerable fraction of the habitable globe, sparsely settled, with a population of 21 to the square mile compared with 311 in Great Britain, 234 in Germany, and 187 in France. Its

resources are as yet measureless; and, to use Mr. Atkinson's words, "it contains incalculable room for immigrants." Indeed, he figures that all the inhabitants of the nation can find standing-room in the town of Brookline,— the mothers holding their babes in their arms,— and still have room to spare. Conclusively, it is not on the ground of overcrowding that the danger arises from the incoming of foreigners. Your authority, gentlemen, for this restricted persuasion, for this enormous assumption of power. Show us your title-deed. If a nation has a right to keep out aliens, tell us how many people constitute a nation, and what geographical area they have a right to claim. In the United States, where a thousand millions can live in peace and harmony under just conditions, who gives to seventy millions the right to monopolize the territory? How few can justly own the earth, and deprive others who are landless of the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness? And what becomes of the rights of the excluded? Is there any justification of such assumption except on the ground of might? It is the simple power of force, and not of justice.

Abraham Lincoln in his first annual message to Congress, Dec. 3, 1861, said: —

Many independent men everywhere in these States a few years back in their lives were hired laborers. The prudent, penniless beginner in the world labors for wages awhile, saves a surplus with which to buy tools or land for himself, then labors on his own account another while, and at length hires another new beginner to help him. This is the just and generous and prosperous system which opens the way to all, gives hope to all, and consequent energy and progress and improvement of condition to all.

No men living are more worthy to be trusted than those who toil up from poverty: none are less inclined to take or touch aught which they have not honestly earned. Let them beware of surrendering a political power which they already possess, and which, if surrendered, will surely be used to close the door of advancement against such as they, and to fix new disabilities and burdens upon them till all of liberty shall be lost.

With relation to interstate migration Mr. W. A. Gates, of St. Paul, Minn., will present a paper on the workings of the new Minnesota law in reference to alien and non-resident dependants.

From my experience as a member of the Wisconsin State Board of Control as to the difficulty of determining the residence of an alien dependant, and of the resistance offered by one State to receive a

dependant from some other State, when the former, under their construction of the law or through their process of reasoning, were convinced that the dependant rightfully should be cared for by the latter, have convinced me that we ought to have a general federal law, which will have to be obeyed by every State of the Union.

It will not suffice that this Conference merely goes on record indorsing such a bill. Without an organization having the enactment of such a law in view, and laboring intelligently to this end, all our resolutions will come to naught.

I would respectfully recommend that a committee be appointed, and that each State in the Union be represented by one member. The chairman of this committee should have the bill introduced into Congress, and prepare a petition to Congress requesting its early passage, to be circulated in the several States by the respective members. This petition should be signed, if possible, by the governor and State officers and other persons interested in such a law. It would also be advisable to induce the several State legislatures to memorialize Congress in behalf of such legislation.

A copy of the petition from each State, together with the signatures, should then be transmitted to every senator and representative in Congress of said State. If this course be taken, there will be little doubt of success.

A case which has recently come under my observation shows how difficult it may be to reach an understanding about the responsibility of caring for dependants between States, in the absence of a uniform law. The controversy is between the States of Colorado and Wisconsin.

The following facts are admitted by both parties : —

Oscar Hake was born in Jefferson County, Wisconsin. In 1884 he removed to Colorado, where he married and settled finally at Fort Collins, where his family has ever since resided and where he voted.

In 1895 he was committed to the State Asylum for the Insane at Pueblo, Col., as insane. On Nov. 6, 1896, he was discharged, and returned to Fort Collins. Within two days after his arrival there he chased his wife with an axe, threatening to kill her. His mother, who had resided with him at Fort Collins for four years, proposed to the authorities of Larimer County that she would take him to Wisconsin, where she had relatives, provided they would furnish her

with money to defray the expenses. These expenses, or at least part of them, were paid by said authorities. The sheriff of Jefferson County, Wisconsin, states that Hake was insane when he reached there, which was about one week after having been discharged from the asylum at Pueblo.

On Dec. 8, 1896, thirty-two days after said discharge, he was committed to the Northern Hospital for the Insane at Winnebago, Wis., as an insane epileptic. Sept. 30, 1897, he was transferred as chronic insane to the Jefferson County Asylum for the Chronic Insane. Nov. 1, 1897, the superintendent of said asylum notified the State Board of Control that Hake appeared to be a citizen of Colorado.

These facts were communicated to the proper authorities of the State of Colorado. The State Board of Wisconsin expressed their willingness to return him at their expense to the asylum at Pueblo. On Dec. 17, 1897, the Governor of Colorado replied that the case of Oscar Hake had been submitted to Attorney-general Carr, whose reply he enclosed for their consideration.

His reply to Governor Alva Adams concludes as follows: —

> I have communicated with Dr. Thoms, the superintendent of the insane asylum at Pueblo; and he informs me that this patient was committed to the asylum from Fort Collins, and, after remaining there some little time, was finally discharged as having been cured. Such being the case, I cannot see that the State of Colorado is under any obligations to do anything in the premises whatever. Having been restored to health, he cannot be considered as having been any longer a lunatic in this State; and it was undoubtedly his privilege to go to Wisconsin, if he saw fit to do so.
>
> Being there, he was under the jurisdiction of the authorities of that State; and, if they saw fit to commit him to an insane asylum, I cannot see that you have any authority to demand his extradition or to do anything in the premises whatever.

To this letter the president of the State Board of Control of Wisconsin replied that Oscar Hake was committed to the insane asylum in Wisconsin three weeks after he was discharged "cured" from Pueblo; that as his wife, family, home, and business were still at Fort Collins, Col., he belonged without doubt to Colorado. He asked if the asylum at Pueblo would receive him if returned at the expense of Wisconsin.

This letter remained unanswered.

On March 15 last Hake was placed in charge of Mr. John Charles to take him to his home at Fort Collins, Col.

Mr. Charles thereupon took Oscar Hake to Fort Collins, and tried in vain to have the State of Colorado take him in charge. The chairman of the board of county commissioners advised the sheriff to have nothing to do with Hake. After various disagreeable experiences, Mr. Charles was obliged to leave the man in the Denver jail at his own expense,— an expense from which he asked to be liberated as soon as possible.

The State Board of Control then instructed the writer of this report to proceed to Denver, adjust matters, and relieve Mr. Charles, so he could return to his home. This I succeeded in doing by the following agreement: —

THIS AGREEMENT, made and entered into this twenty-ninth day of March, A.D. 1898, between the State of Colorado, by Alva Adams, governor, party of the first part, and the State Board of Control of Wisconsin Reformatory, Charitable, and Penal Institutions, by Richard Guenther, vice-president, party of the second part, WITNESSETH: —

That whereas a difference exists between the parties hereto concerning the maintenance and support of a certain lunatic pauper by the name of Oscar Hake, and the question has arisen whether the support of said lunatic is properly chargeable to the State of Wisconsin or to the State of Colorado, and it is mutually deemed desirable by the parties hereto that the difference be settled by an amicable proceeding in the courts, now, therefore, it is agreed and understood by and between the parties hereto that the said Oscar Hake shall be committed to the State Asylum for the Insane at Pueblo, Col., there to remain until the difference aforesaid shall be judicially determined at the expense of the party of the second part, said expense to be paid upon monthly statements made by the superintendent of said institution, and not to exceed the actual cost of maintenance or until such time as the said lunatic may be lawfully discharged therefrom.

IT IS FURTHER AGREED AND UNDERSTOOD that the said party of the second part shall forthwith, or as soon as the same can be done conveniently, commence an action or proceeding in the District Court of Larimer County, Col., for the purpose of determining which of the parties hereto is responsible for the support of said lunatic, making such parties to said proceeding as the said second party may be advised; the facts therein to be agreed upon, so far as an agreement may be reached between the parties, and any facts in dispute to be determined in the ordinary way by the said District Court.

AND IT IS FURTHER AGREED that the parties hereto shall abide the judgment of the said District Court in the premises, without prejudice to either party on account of misjoinder, non-joinder, or defect of parties, subject, however, to the right of either party to appeal from said judgment to the appellate courts. And, if upon final judgment it shall be determined that the support of said lunatic

is properly chargeable to the State of Colorado, then the party of the first part agrees to reimburse the party of the second part for the moneys paid to the State of Colorado for said maintenance.

THE STATE OF COLORADO,

By ALVA ADAMS, *Governor*,

Party of the first part.

THE STATE BOARD OF CONTROL OF WISCONSIN REFORMATORY, CHARITABLE, AND PENAL INSTITUTIONS,

By RICHARD GUENTHER, *Vice-President*,

Party of the second part.

The case of Oscar Hake is only one of many similar ones arising between States, and tends to show the necessity of a general law establishing the responsibility for the support of dependent persons.

INSANITY AND IMMIGRATION.

BY F. B. SANBORN, CONCORD, MASS.

In accounting for the great and rapid increase in the number of the insane of the United States,— an increase too marked to be held in doubt, though its exact ratio cannot easily be determined, by reason of the crudeness of our statistics,— it has been customary for the past quarter of a century to assign foreign immigration as a foremost cause. It is only since the Civil War that this custom has been much noticed; for when the late Dr. Earle, in 1863, wrote his exhaustive chapter in the volume of the Census Bureau of 1860, which treats of insanity, he did not find it necessary to include immigration, along with heredity, intemperance, religious excitement, and defective education, as predisposing causes of the mental malady. It was known, however, earlier than 1860, that homesickness in emigrants had sometimes led to insanity; and it was believed that the complete change of habit and social conditions which the peasant or day-laborer of Europe experienced in coming to live here must facilitate the access of insanity, both directly and indirectly.

And it is generally known that the enormous increase of visible insanity in the United States for a whole generation has been coincident with a large addition to our population by immigration. Hence many have inferred that immigration actually produced insanity on a grand scale, either by furnishing a class of persons more exposed to insanity than the older residents; or by sending to us, as in health, many persons really attacked with insanity before coming, though perhaps temporarily sane when landing, so as to escape the watchful eye of the officials who seek out such defective persons among the newly arrived immigrants. And there are many facts which look that way, though not yet fully investigated.

Another large class of facts, however, lead to an exactly opposite conclusion,— the conditions with respect to insanity of the European countries from which our immigrants come. For those countries without exception, though in differing degrees, show an increase of the malady there quite equal to its apparent growth in America; and one country of which we almost involuntarily think when immigration is mentioned — Ireland — exhibits a gain in number of the insane inhabitants apparently inconsistent with a theory which requires the Irish emigrants to supply us with a large quota of our actual insanity. For, while our American population fast augments both by births and by immigration, the inhabitants of Ireland have long been diminishing in number; yet the decrease of population does not there check the increase of insanity which goes on even faster in Ireland than here or in most of the countries of Europe.

When I last saw Sir Arthur Mitchel in Scotland, nearly five years ago, he called my attention to a curious illustration of this Irish paradox — insanity gaining while population falls off — in a comparison between an Australian report made by the eminent Dr. Manning, who long since (1868) visited America to study our insane hospitals and the laws regulating them, and Sir Arthur's own report, then recent, on the Irish insane at home. Dr. Manning had given as one reason for the rapid growth of insanity in Australia that its population came largely from Ireland, bringing an undue proportion of the insane along with them. At this very time Sir Arthur was proving in his Irish report that an undue proportion of the Irish insane were left in Ireland by the emigration to Australia and America of so many myriads of the younger and sounder Irish people. It hardly seemed that both these contentions could be true; for you

could not well take away from Ireland a greater portion of her insane for foreign residence and at the same time leave a greater portion at home.

The facts in regard to Ireland are sufficiently striking, and have lately attracted much notice in England, where, also, the swift increase of visible insanity occasions some excitement. It seems that in 1851, at the census of that year, Ireland reported a total population of 6,514,473; but only 5,074 of them were reckoned insane. At the last census (1891) the total population had fallen to 4,681,248,—a loss of almost 30 per cent. in forty years; yet the visible insane had risen to 14,945,—nearly trebled. And this contrast between the declining census and the increasing insane has been a persistent one year by year, and has shown itself in the first admissions of the insane, as well as in their total accumulation. This is seen in the following table:—

IRELAND. TABLE OF POPULATION AND INSANITY.

Years.	*Population.*	*First Admissions.*	*Whole Number Insane.*
1880	5,202,648	1,925	12,982
1881	5,145,770	2,044	13,326
1882	5,101,018	2,137	13,704
1883	5,023,811	2,185	13,981
1884	4,974,561	2,209	14,178
1885	4,938,588	2,240	14,307
1886	4,905,895	2,140	14,590
1887	4,857,119	2,243	15,147
1888	4,801,312	2,190	15,551
1889	4,757,385	2,329	16,026
1890	4,717,959	2,451	16,251
1891	4,681,248	2,350	16,688
1892	4,638,169	2,415	17,124
1893	4,615,312	2,458	17,276
1894	4,609,599	2,448	17,655
1895	4,574,764	2,448	18,357
1896	4,560,378	2,564	18,966

Here, as will be noticed, the first admissions to asylums in Ireland have gone up in sixteen years from 1,925 to 2,564,—a gain of 639, or 30 per cent., though the population has diminished by 642,270 in the same period,—a loss of 12 per cent. The readmissions have also increased, and proportionately still more,—from 441 in 1880 to 765 in 1896, or nearly 73 per cent. It would thus

appear that both recent insanity and relapses of the insane have been gaining in Ireland, in spite of its decreasing population, just as they have in Massachusetts, with its fast gaining population, largely now of Irish extraction.

I printed in the London *Journal of Mental Science* in April, 1894, a statistical article showing that recent or "occurring" insanity had perceptibly increased in Massachusetts since 1879, beyond the natural ratio of the population; and I can here continue the table there given for the years since 1893.

MASSACHUSETTS TABLE OF FIRST ADMISSIONS, ETC.

Years.	*Population.*	*First Admissions.*	*All Admissions.*	*All Insane.*
1880	1,783,086	900	1,163	3,168
1885	1,942,141	1,131	1,471	3,862
1890	2,238,943	1,352	2,111	4,849
1891	2,290,196	1,501	2,246	5,075
1892	2,342,057	1,634	2,202	5,367
1893	2,394,180	1,617	2,312	5,488
1894	2,446,880	1,523	2,241	5,709
1895	2,500,183	1,564	2,265	5,905
1896	2,555,500	1,731	3,039	6,220
1897	2,580,720	1,753	2,887	6,547

In this table it is to be noticed that the population between the census years, an interval of five years, as against ten years in Ireland, is estimated, as in the Irish table; but it cannot differ much from the fact. The total of admissions varies much on account of transfers from one establishment to another; and the first admissions are more or less affected by the fact that the asylums are either full or partially vacant,—the latter being the case in 1896 and 1897,—while for three years before 1896 the asylums were crowded. But, taking series of five or ten years, the gain in first admissions is marked, and out of proportion to the gain in population.

It will thus be seen that in seventeen years in Massachusetts the whole population has gained about 45 per cent.; the reported insane in these establishments (not including something more than 1,000 elsewhere, mostly chronic cases) have gained 107 per cent. (more than doubled); while the first admissions have gained 853 in a year, in the whole period,— 94 per cent., or double the rate of population increase. These figures of first admission are more exact than

almost anywhere else, because they are reported as the *first admission to any hospital*, which is not usually the case in Ireland or other large countries. It will be noticed, too, by comparing the two tables, that Ireland, with a population nearly twice as great as Massachusetts, and an insane total of more than twice as many, has fewer first admissions, in proportion to its people, than Massachusetts,— 2,564 in 1896 as against 1,731, or 1 in 1,778 as against 1 in 1,476 in Massachusetts. This is to be accounted for, not by the foreign immigration into Massachusetts, but by the emigration out of Ireland, which carries with it hundreds of thousands of those who, if they stayed, would be within the ages most liable to first attacks of insanity; namely, according to Dr. Earle and other good authorities, in the years between twenty and thirty.*

And it is found in Ireland that between the two censuses of 1871 and 1891 the proportion of the Irish insane between infancy and twenty-five years fell from 230 in every thousand insane persons to 154 in a thousand; while the proportion above forty five years old rose from 322 to 420 in a thousand,— a decrease, that is, of 30 per cent. of the youngest ages and an increase of 30 per cent. in the oldest ages.

These dry statistics were necessary to explain the paradox of the increase of insanity by emigration, both in the country which sends out and the country which receives emigrants. These persons are drawn, generally, from the younger and more vigorous class, excepting children, who do not emigrate in large numbers. Consequently, they leave behind them the older and less vigorous, as well as many children. From the children, as they grow up, the more vigorous, again, join the army of emigration, leaving the infirm and often the insane behind them to swell the ranks of insanity in the mother country, which also suffers from the greater liability of the aged to that malady. Hence Ireland, with a steadily diminished population, shows as steady an increase of the insane; while, in the country which receives her immigrants, they become a part of that younger class which, from its very number, furnishes the most cases of insanity. And then, as they grow older, they pass into that class which, from the infirmities of advanced years, furnishes proportionately the greatest number of insane. This is the class above forty-

*That is most liable because most numerous; but, in fact, the greatest liability to insanity, in proportion to their number, is between 40 and 80.

five years old, according to my calculations in Massachusetts twelve years ago, based on a little less than 8,000 cases first admitted to six hospitals for seven years. I then found the number admitted from infancy to twenty-five years was 1 in every 443 of the census population at that age in 1885; while those admitted from twenty-five to fifty years were 1 in 147, and those from forty to fifty years were 1 in 137, the highest rate noticed. But from fifty years upward, the rate exceeded 1 in 220, or twice as many as those admitted under twenty-five years.

Besides the considerations here advanced, the great fact of race has to be considered, as affecting the influence of immigration on insanity in the country where the immigrants settle. Certain races — the Irish, for instance — appear to be more disposed to insanity than others, either from their physical constitution or from ingrained habits, such as intemperance. Other races — the Germanic, the Greek, etc. — appear to be more free from this malady; chiefly, perhaps, from their habits of life. In general, a rural population is more sane than the people of crowded cities; and outdoor life is more favorable both to sanity and to recovery from insanity than a sedentary life or the indoor pursuits of manufacturing centres. Both these facts have to do with the prevalence of insanity among our foreign-born population and their immediate descendants, with whom heredity operates powerfully. Thus the Germanic and Scandinavian settlers in the rural States of the North-west seem to show fewer cases of insanity than the native-born; and the Irish settlers and their children are more free in those States from the malady than they are in the great cities, either West or East. In truth, the question of immigration, in its social and sanitary aspects, is so complicated in the United States that almost any general statement will involve local or historical contradictions. Both the quality and the quantity of immigrants are continually varying, while the change going on in American habits of life has been rapid and powerful with respect to insanity.

In writing the life of Dr. Earle, whose address to this Conference at Chicago nearly twenty years since made so profound an impression, I have come upon some very significant figures bearing on the prevalence of insanity in New York, where Dr. Earle lived for several years, from 1844 to 1854. At this time he was a member of the Visiting Board of Physicians at the City Lunatic Asylum, then

at Blackwell's Island, under the direction of Dr. Moses Ranney, who furnished Dr. Earle in 1856 the figures in question. They cover the period from 1847 to 1855, inclusive, and show these facts : —

In these nine years, when the population of New York averaged about 550,000, the average number of patients at the City Asylum was 912, and the average annual commitments were 446. The average recoveries were 188 a year, and the deaths averaged 130,— a high death-rate, due in part to cholera in 1849 and 1854. But the whole number of the city insane was then but about 1 in 575 of the population, while the recoveries far outnumbered the deaths. In the nine last years, ending with Oct. 1, 1897, the average number of patients resident in the city asylums (and of late in the State Asylum of Manhattan) has been more than 7,000, or 1 in 260 of the average city population,— more than twice as many, pro rata, as fifty years ago,— while the recoveries have been less than a third of the deaths (say an average of 180 recoveries to 600 deaths), and the accumulated insanity of the city in its asylums now exceeds 7,000, where fifty years since it was but 450 under constant treatment. While the population has not quadrupled, then, the insane contingent has more than multiplied by twelve.

Now, among the many causes contributing to this startling result of the last half-century, I infer that foreign immigration has been an important one. For the proportion of the foreign-born and their recent descendants must be now in New York four times what it was fifty years ago ; and the habits of life in this part of the people have been such as to increase insanity, and make it more fatal and less curable. The same remark is to be made of Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, and most of the great cities of the land. In this view of the matter, immigration *has* promoted insanity greatly.

The three kingdoms of Scandinavia (Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) have sent to the United States since 1860 nearly 1,500,000 emigrants, who, with descendants, must now number some 5,000,000 living persons, among whom we do not find that insanity exists beyond the proportion that is seen in the population of American descent for four generations. It is even alleged to be less. However that may be, in the Scandinavian countries since 1860, though the whole population has gained from less than 7,500,000 to more than 9,000,000, or something above 20 per cent., the reported insane have gained much more ; namely, from less than 10,000 in 1860 to more than 17,000 in 1898,— more than 75 per cent., or three times

as fast as population has increased. Here, doubtless, the same causes have been operating which we have mentioned in Ireland, and shall speak of in one of the small English counties (Dorsetshire). The younger and more vigorous in certain districts have emigrated, leaving the aged and less vigorous to swell the aggregate of insanity in their native land; while the immigrants to Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, the Dakotas, etc., have largely supplied the rapid gain in the number of the insane who crowd the hospitals in those States.

Let it be observed, however, that these local results of emigration in the old countries, where the population is so largely rural as it is in Scandinavia, are not to be compared with those sad consequences (so far as insanity is concerned) resulting from the concentration in great cities of the population formerly rural. It is hard to estimate the present inhabitants of London (the county); but they certainly exceed 5,000,000, and may come up to 6,000,000. At any computation, they are less by one-third than the total population of Scandinavia; yet the County Council has this year reported 20,000 insane poor in London (increasing from 700 to 1,000 a year), while the greater population of the three northern kingdoms (9,000,000) reports less than 18,000 insane.

The county of Dorset in England furnishes, on a small scale, the same facts of increasing insanity in a population not increasing, which we see in Ireland. It had in 1871 195,537 people; in 1891, 194,517,—stationary, that is, with a slight decrease. But its insane, which in 1871 were but 608, had increased to 723 in 1891; though average recoveries (37½ per cent.) and deaths (7 per cent.) among the hospital cases might have been expected to keep the increase down. The Dorsetshire expert says truly, "A material increase of our population by immigration would have a tendency to reduce the ratio of insanity to the population": it is now almost as high as anywhere in England, though Dorset is a rural county. Emigration has kept the population down and increased the aggregate of insanity there, as in Ireland. We cannot say, then, that immigration of itself increases insanity, while it looks as if emigration alone has that effect in the emigrant-producing country.

ALIEN AND NON-RESIDENT DEPENDANTS IN MINNESOTA.

BY W. A. GATES,

STATE AGENT MINNESOTA STATE BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

The State of Minnesota had no law providing for the deportation of alien and non-resident dependants until April, 1897. By the statute then enacted a legal residence is declared to be a continuous residence of one year within the State; but, if the person shall have been an inmate of any public or private hospital or charitable institution, or of any almshouse, jail, prison, or other public institution maintained from the public treasury, the time so spent shall not be reckoned in determining the question of legal residence, or, if he shall have received poor-relief from the public treasury, no month during which he received such relief shall be reckoned in determining residence.

This statute, as it will be seen, requires one year of independent self-supporting residence to gain a legal settlement. Any person who has so resided within the State for one year, but who has not resided in any one county or town for one year, shall be deemed a resident of the county or town in which he shall have resided the longest. This provision does away with what are known as State paupers. If a person has a legal residence within the State, he has a legal residence at a particular place within the State; and that place is chargeable for his support.

The objection usually urged to this plan is the temptation it offers to poor authorities to ship paupers to other towns to avoid support. This curse existed under our old law, and it is not yet wholly eradicated under the new. By making it a misdemeanor for any person to send a pauper from one town to another except under the direction of the State Board of Corrections and Charities, this evil can, I believe, be effectually cured.

Under our statute, county commissioners are authorized in the first instance to return to their place of residence all persons applying for public relief who are not residents of the county, but are of some other county of the State. In case the county commissioners

of the county to which a person has been removed disputes the fact of residence in that county, they are not permitted to return the pauper, but should lay the case before the State Board of Corrections and Charities. The latter body, through its committee, secretary, or State agent, shall investigate the same, and, when they have determined the question of residence, shall certify their finding to the parties interested. The county where the pauper's residence is found to be is chargeable with the expense of the investigation and the maintenance of the pauper during the investigation. Appeal may be had to the district court of the county where the pauper then is. I should favor modifying this feature of the law, and compel the matter to be referred to the State Board of Corrections and Charities in the first instance, and permit no shipping of paupers except under the direction of the State Board.

The constitutionality of this law has been called in question on the ground that it confers judicial power upon an executive department. I believe, however, that it will be sustained as being only a preliminary inquiry preparatory to an executive act, and the parties further having their remedy in court if they are aggrieved, which is supposed to give them perfect protection.

This law does not provide for that large class who have no legal settlement anywhere or whose place of legal settlement cannot be ascertained. We have numerous cases of this kind. Tramps have fallen from brake beams of trains, and sustained serious injury. A large bill of expense is incurred for some one to meet. Ordinarily, these would be State cases; but our law does not recognize a "State pauper." No provision is made for the care or maintenance of such persons. Consequently, they become a burden upon the county or town where the accident occurs. Where the township system prevails, this burden frequently is a heavy one. As these accidents generally occur near junctions and freight division points, this burden is not evenly distributed.

Whenever notice of the presence of an alien or non-resident pauper is sent to the State Board of Corrections and Charities, the law makes it their duty, by their secretary or State agent, to investigate the same, and, if such pauper is found to have a legal residence outside the State, to deport him to his place of legal residence at the expense of the State.

The sending of such persons to their homes is in most cases an

act of humanity to the person sent. They are being sent among friends and where they are familiar with the conditions of labor, and are much more likely to attain self-support.

It was my pleasure last year to visit Dr. Hoyt of this State, and witness his disposition of this class of cases in New York. I was impressed with the humanity and justice of his work. A particular case was that of a man, with his wife and two children, who left Montana about a year previous, went to the home of his boyhood near Buffalo, and found that an absence of many years had made him a stranger in the town of his birth. A life of fifteen years as a cow-boy had unfitted him for any occupation to be had in his native State. He took his family to New York City, and there his last substance was spent in the vain effort to find work. The Gerry Society wished to take away the two children, and place them in other hands. There was no evidence of dissipation or laziness, but an unfitness to meet the conditions of New York life. It is evident that there was but one humane thing to do for that family,— send it to the home in Montana, the place above all others where the father could support them. They desired to return; and Superintendent Hoyt returned them, thus probably saving the family. This is humanity. It is also State interest.

This works very well where the pauper is willing to go, but there are instances where the pauper is not willing to go. I have one such case. A family moved across one State to reach our own. They arrived in a pauper condition, asked aid almost immediately, and threatened when it was not given. The family have all the appearance of being confirmed paupers, and were probably helped away from their former abode by authorities who wished to get rid of them. They refuse to go back, and to deport them requires force. We have the power, no doubt, to use force in removing paupers from one place to another within our own State; but whether we can cross another State is doubtful. Perhaps it can be done under a kind of State comity which exists, and which permits the sheriff of one State to convey his prisoner across another State.

Far more important, however, is the handling of the defective classes. The law provides in brief:—

First, that it shall be illegal for any probate judge to commit to a State hospital a non-resident or one whose residence is in doubt or for the superintendent of any other State institution to admit such

person, except as authorized by the State Board of Corrections and Charities.

Second, it is made the duty of said probate judge or superintendent of State institution to notify at once the State Board of Corrections and Charities that he holds such non-resident person subject to the order of said board.

Third, it is then made the duty of said board, or its State agent, to investigate the case as soon as practicable, and, if the facts will warrant, deport the person to his place of legal residence. The board may, for reasons of humanity, authorize admission of such non-resident person to a State institution.

Heretofore it has been the practice of our State to open the doors of its institutions to all applicants. These are instances of our generosity. A man whose home was in Ireland was travelling from the State of Washington to New York, thence to his home beyond the sea. Having an altercation with the conductor of the train on which he entered St. Paul, he was arrested, found insane, and committed to the Rochester State Hospital. He had in his possession about $600, no part of which the State takes for any reason. Thus for a trivial matter a foreign traveller, with plenty of money, is stopped in his passage across the State, confined in an insane hospital at an expense of $235 per annum to the State. A woman going from a visit to a sister in Seattle to her home in Michigan is taken from the train because she "acts peculiar," and, although she possesses a ticket and means to reach her destination, is thrust into one of our insane hospitals. The daughter in Michigan says that she protested at the time, and asked to have her sent home; but the superintendent wrote her to come and get her. That was over five years ago, and she is still there. A young girl twenty years of age leaves her home in East Prussia, comes to America, thence to Minnesota. She has no relatives in this country save an aunt, who is said to be abusive to her. She soon becomes homesick, then insane, and is sent to a State hospital. A citizen of British Columbia brings his wife to Minneapolis, and places her in a private hospital for treatment. She does not recover, and in a short time he ceases to remit payment. The hospital then turns her over to the State; and there, so far as the husband is concerned, she may always remain. He is not now troubled with bills. A woman confined in an insane hospital in her own State for a period of nearly thirty

years is released by her friends, sent on a charity ticket into Minnesota, where she was committed to one of our insane hospitals in less than a week. Such is, or was, our generosity.

What in humanity ought to have been done in these cases? The first and second should have been sent on their way without detention. If an attendant was required, the State should have furnished one. The only justifiable reason for detaining these cases in the State hospital is that their condition is such that they cannot safely travel even with an attendant. The third case, a young girl, a stranger in a strange land, insane probably from homesickness, should be returned to her home. The fourth and fifth are cases of pure imposition, and there is no humanitarian reason why they should not be returned.

We still have in our hospitals persons whose names we do not know. They are probably mourned by their friends as dead. We have restored some cases of this kind to their homes, to the great gratification of their families as well as themselves. There are strong humanitarian as well as financial reasons why this work should be done.

This law, whether in the deportation of paupers, insane or other dependants, must be administered in a spirit of justice. It can be abused. There should be no deportation made except to a place which is clearly the person's legal settlement.

In deporting insane or other cases, the proper delivery of the person is an important matter. If the person has relatives or friends who accept him and concede that to be his home, the work is done. But a certain town may be a person's place of legal settlement, and yet there be no relative or friend who can or will receive him. Under no circumstance is this person to be turned loose or dumped into the community. He must be delivered to the authorities, an information of insanity filed in the proper court, and the evidence as to residence there produced to the satisfaction of the judge or jury. We know of one instance where a man was taken from the hospital of a neighboring State, brought to the city of Minneapolis, and abandoned on the front steps of the court-house with one dollar in his pocket. He has disappeared; and, so far as I know, no one knows what has become of him. These facts I learned from a letter from the man who sent him, and complained because neither the judge of probate nor the sheriff would take the man upon the word

of the attendant, the latter declining to file an information in insanity.

In one case I took a man to a town in Michigan that he claimed to be his home. I was unable to find his friends or any evidence as to his residence; and I brought him back to Minnesota.

In all cases of doubt we keep the man, if he becomes insane in our State; but, if he is sent into our State from another for the purpose of dumping him, we shall see that he is returned and kept there, if it takes the State militia to do it. I hope no one, however, will take advantage of us while our national guard is in the Spanish war.

The question may be asked, If all States do this work, what will be gained? Will you not get back as many as you send away?

The tide of immigration is toward the West, and therefore Western States will get more from the East than the East does from the West. Again, we all get a still larger number from Europe. It is quite popular in some parts of Europe to send dependent relatives over to America. We have one instance where a father sent his twenty-two-year-old son to Minnesota in a few weeks after he came out of an insane hospital in Norway; and he went into ours in four weeks after he landed at New York.

It may be well in this connection to call attention to the United States statute on this subject. All immigrants becoming dependent within a year after landing, application being made therefor within the year, shall be deported by the government. Cases that come under the United States laws — and there are many — must be delivered to the immigration office at the port of entry; and the deportation is then at government expense.

There are many of these government cases in all parts of the country, if they were hunted out as they should be. Notwithstanding the United States government inspection, many of these classes get into the country. If they are permitted to remain, they will breed generations of dependants. This winter at Jamestown, North Dakota State hospital, I was shown a mother and four of her grown children, all confined for insanity. The family could have been sent back if there had been some one in that State to hunt up their cases. Now they and their descendants will probably be a burden to North Dakota for all time.

Immigration is not what it once was. In earlier days it took

heroes to undertake the trials and privations necessary to journey from the old home across the sea and found a new home in a wilderness. It also required some means. We then got good immigrants. We get some now. But, with the ease of the lightning express, the speed and comfort of an ocean greyhound, the seductive smile of the steamship agent, the low cost of transportation, and, above all, the willingness of friends to send us their dependent relatives, we are getting not heroes altogether, but a large class of undesirable dependants.

A union of all the States in this matter will supplement the government law. The sending them back will be a salutary lesson, and have a deterrent effect upon others contemplating sending over their dependants. The time has arrived when the people of this country should protect themselves against the influx of degenerates from the Old World. We need more efficient national legislation, and we need more vigorous action on the part of both national and State authorities. More than that, we need a union of all our forces for the common end.

VIII.

The Care of the Insane.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON INSANITY.

BY WILLIAM G. STEARNS, CHAIRMAN,

SUPERINTENDENT ILLINOIS EASTERN HOSPITAL.

The field of insanity is so broad that your committee have thought best not to attempt to deal with it in its entirety, but have decided to call the attention of the Conference to a few of the more salient points that have been considered by this department in its sectional meetings of this week, supplementing the same by a few remarks upon subjects that seem to the committee to be especially worthy of comment.

In reference to the subject of the commitment of the insane, it is gratifying to note that greater adaptation to needs is being secured. Voluntary commitment, in which lies the possibility of restoration to health of many persons threatened with insanity, is being increasingly used in those States permitting it, and should be adopted in all the States. In New York State the wise action of the Lunacy Commissioners in permitting voluntary commitment to the private institutions for the insane is to be noted as a distinct advance.

From the great number of individuals who need hospital treatment, and who would voluntarily seek admission to our hospitals for the insane, but are in many States debarred by legal enactment, your attention is called to a still greater number of persons positively insane who are debarred admission to our hospitals by family prejudice.

One of the influences that militates most disastrously against the proper treatment of the insane in the earlier stages of the disease, when treatment is most effective, is that popular prejudice born of ignorance, which associates with "lunatic asylum" or "insane

asylum" ideas of loathsome cells, clanking chains, and horrors manifold. This revulsion of feeling has been instilled and inherited through many generations until it has become innate,— a part of our very being.

The patient is wrongfully kept at home until it is no longer possible to care for him, every resource of care and energy on the part of the fond family being exhausted; and in dire distress, as a last resort, recourse is had to the hospital for the insane. At last the patient is transferred from the most unfavorable surroundings to those most favorable for recovery. Our people are ignorant of the modern methods of nursing and treatment of the insane.

We should lose no opportunity to present to the public through social converse, the platform, and the press, in every possible way, such information as will dispel these popular delusions, that will inculcate the fact that the insane man — the crazy man — is suffering from a disease that demands as prompt and efficient treatment as does typhoid fever, blotting out the idea that the hospital for the insane is a chamber of horrors and making known the fact that the treatment of the insane can nowhere else be so efficiently administered.

The removal from our hospitals for the insane of those classes whose moral and mental instability and unsoundness make their presence inimical to the best care and treatment of the insane, and the caring for them in separate institutions built and managed with especial reference to their needs, cannot be too highly commended.

With reference to the medical treatment of the insane, one of the most encouraging features is the gradual breaking down of the dividing line between general diseases and mental diseases.

We note with great satisfaction that those immediately in charge of hospitals for the care and treatment of the insane are making use of the great mass of facts supplied by the various departments of special investigation, and are insisting upon the completest possible knowledge of the patients placed in their charge,— such knowledge as can be gained from: (1) careful collection of the patient's history before admission; (2) thorough physical and mental examination; (3) collateral data from the various laboratories; (4) *post-mortem* examination.

It is a cause of congratulation that psychiatry is more and more laying tribute to all the sciences that can render any possible assistance in the study of mind.

The discussion of after-care of the insane led your committee to conclude that experience has shown that private organized effort is urgently needed to provide assistance for poor persons discharged as recovered and convalescent from the institutions for the insane, so that such persons may again become and remain self-supporting, and may be safeguarded against relapse. Also, that after-care societies for the insane, such as have been found successful in England, France, Germany, and Switzerland, would accomplish a beneficial work, and on both humane and economic grounds should be organized in the United States and Canada.

Inasmuch as all efficient methods of prevention are based upon an actual knowledge of the causation and character of the disease, we can look forward with much assurance to the clinical and pathological research that is now gaining permanent foothold in our hospitals for the insane for data that will indicate the best methods of prevention. Especially do we look for a better comprehension of morbid mental states to the investigations of social and psycho-pathology.

ADVANCED PROFESSIONAL WORK IN HOSPITALS FOR THE INSANE.

BY EDWARD COWLES, M.D.,

MEDICAL SUPERINTENDENT, McLEAN HOSPITAL, WAVERLEY, MASS.

The new conceptions of the professional work that is now demanded in our hospitals for the insane present difficulties even in stating the problems involved. It is fitting for the present purpose to attempt no more than a general statement concerning this special work, to show its claims upon the attention and approval of thoughtful men, and the reasonableness of expecting it to be encouraged by the substantial aid it needs from those who have controlling authority over these matters.

The purpose for which our hospitals for the insane are built, maintained, and managed, is a medical purpose. The development

of the idea that insanity is a disease, and of the professional work of treating it, is peculiar to the century now ending, and to its humanitarian progress.

The first essential step in this progress was to provide hospitals for suitable care, and the proper conditions for work in them. This problem has taxed the best efforts of philanthropic persons, the wisdom of legislators, and the knowledge and experience of the medical profession. And, taking a broad view of the subject throughout our own and all other civilized countries, it can be said that the insane in hospitals were never before so well or so completely cared for as they are now. It is a fitting time to turn our attention more particularly to the advancement of the professional work which is the main purpose of these institutions.

The discussion of this subject presents three general considerations: (1) the conditions for doing the professional work; (2) the kind of work that should be done; and (3) the providing of properly qualified physicians for doing it.

The Conditions for Doing the Professional Work.— The material conditions in the hospitals themselves being provided, the requirements essential as prerequisites for good professional work include all that relates to the administrative work of the hospital and the remedial influences which are the adjuncts of what is more strictly medical and professional.

1. The organization of the hospital must be systematic and business-like. It has its peculiar requirements as a medical business, because at every point it must be shaped to the one chief purpose of the institution,— to serve the interests of the sick. The common-sense principle of management is that "those are best qualified to conduct a business who are the best acquainted with its requirements."

This principle of organization places the executive responsibilities of hospitals for the insane in the hands of medical men. The medical and executive operations of a great hospital are so closely joined that unity of control becomes the essential basis of that harmony of administration which is itself a most potent curative influence. This leads to reduction of friction and ease of management. It is the comprehension of the nature of the professional studies, and of the mutual importance of these and the material conditions for carrying them on, that qualifies the executive for the best achieve-

ments of the whole work. It is where the qualifications gained by permanence of service are respected that real hope exists for the advancement which the intelligence and conscience of our time now demand in the care and treatment of the insane.

In the Empire State these requisite conditions for professional work are duly regarded. Here is a distinguished example of the good sense of giving these State institutions stable business and medical organizations which grow better through experience. Under such conditions it has become possible to inaugurate in New York one of the most encouraging movements for advancing the scientific professional work necessary for the better knowledge and treatment of insanity.

2. The remedial influences contributive to the more strictly medical and professional elements of the work may be briefly stated as including all that pertains to the care of the insane. The great advancement that has been made along this line should be continued in every hospital. The patients are better housed and better fed. More attention is given to the mental effects of physical and mental occupation. More wholesome conditions are sought in promoting a natural interest in the various forms of entertainment and in giving the patients pleasanter surroundings. A great contribution to these remedial influences is the introduction of the system of training nurses in our hospitals. So many hospitals have adopted this reform that the new century will begin with this as practically an accomplished fact in our methods. Our educated nurses have come to be actual assistants in the professional work, aiding us in clinical observations and applying for us, as was never done before, some of the most effective of our therapeutic methods.

The conditions indicated as requisite for doing the professional work in the treatment of the insane are so essential and important that to have brought them into existence makes a worthy record of many decades in the history of our institutions.

The Kind of Professional Work that should be done.— The former conception of mental disorders was, as in general medicine, that in each different form of disease some special form of pathological organic change existed. In like manner, scientific work in the study of insanity meant chiefly *post-mortem* investigations, in the expectation of finding the changes that should correspond to each form of mental disease. The hospitals for the insane were not behind the

general hospitals in this regard; for the modern laboratory, which is now essential to every general hospital of importance, was quite unknown. This indicates the radical change in the methods of scientific study of disease, due to the marvellous progress in medicine that the present generation is witnessing.

The fundamental principle underlying modern scientific medicine is the biological conception of man. In the body, with all its elements of vital activity,—its mechanical and chemical functions,—these must be studied together, in health and disease, both the developmental processes and those of decay, those of the building up and the breaking down of the vital elements. Pathological studies are less a matter for the autopsy room than for the laboratory, where pathological processes, the causes and products of disorders in the physiological and chemical reactions of the whole or parts of the body, are studied in connection with the manifestations of disease as they are observed in the living subject. The disorders of all these activities furnish problems for the hospital laboratory. New evidences arise which indicate more and more clearly the interdependence of the elements of organic life. Professional work in general medicine lies in all those lines of inquiry.

The mental life is another and distinctive element associated with the mechanical and chemical functions of the body. Clinical and pathological studies give satisfactory evidence that the brain is the seat of mental activity, and that its damage impairs or destroys mental function. The biological conception is that all mental activity must have its physical aspect, and is one with a corresponding activity of brain-cells. When we study changes in the normal action of the mind, we have to conceive of corresponding changes in the physiological action of the basis of the mind. This puts us exactly on the ground of the general physician in his new conception of diseases as pathological processes, which are disturbances of natural physiological processes. Thus we see in delirium a common example of mental disorder attending the intoxications due to the poisons causing or generated by fevers, or by alcohol and other poisons. We do not call this mental disease, because the delirium passes away with the removal of the obvious cause in the recognized bodily disease. But we see also that mental diseases, often obscure as to causation, do accompany the less active disorders of nutrition, the effects of fatigue and all exhausting influences, and

of poisons from within and without the body, as they affect the nervous system. The relation of bodily causes to mental symptoms makes as essential for us as for the general hospitals the researches of the laboratory as an adjunct of our bedside studies. But our problems, in addition to those of the general physician, include the necessity for careful and exhaustive psychological studies of mental symptoms which are often the only direct manifestations of disturbances in the brain mechanism. It follows, therefore, that the professional work which should be done in hospitals for the insane requires us to study, not only the mental manifestations, but just as thoroughly the physical conditions of our patients. We must have all the contributive aids of a well-equipped laboratory for the investigations which are to enlarge our present knowledge of physiological and chemical processes, and to test as far as possible our remedial measures.

In this regard the proceedings of the German Medical Congress last month have as much significance for those who treat mental diseases as for the general physician. It was agreed that in the teaching of medicine more laboratory work must be required, that practical, physical, therapeutic methods — the use of baths, of medical gymnastics, of massage, of remedies by inhalation, and of treatment by electricity — must receive more attention than they have had.* It is interesting to note that some of our hospitals are actively using some of these methods.

Every hospital for the insane should have its laboratory, however modest, and its director trained in some degree to such work, both as a pathologist, as the term was formerly understood, and to study the problems that arise in connection with the clinical work. He may apply for the current purposes of treatment the results gained by other more expert investigators, or be led to work also in some special line of inquiry in which he is particularly interested or for which he is especially qualified; and the sum of the contributions from many hospitals will furnish enlightenment for all. The great thing is to begin the advancement of this scientific work, in some way, in every hospital. It is this which will introduce the professional spirit, and put life into the dry bones of routine work that is death to all interest.

The uses of the laboratory being thus indicated, we may now con-

* *Boston Medical and Surgical Journal*, "German letter," May 5, 1898.

sider the nature of the most important part of all the professional work, which is the clinical study of mental disorders. The study of mental diseases is, broadly, to discover the disease processes underlying them, and to learn how to stop these processes. These studies must be chiefly clinical, using the modern scientific methods by which, as in all other sciences, from a great number of observed facts we reach the general truth which explains all.

An example of the value of this method may be found in a large group of cases which have been commonly called melancholia, and of which it could only be vaguely predicted that some might get well and some might not. But by more careful observation, analysis, and comparison, it may be seen at the outset that there are probably different disease processes involved, so that we can answer more accurately the anxious inquiries, and state that, of this great group, these cases will recover and those will not; and our treatment will be better guided.

A practical method for carrying on these studies has been organized in a few hospitals. At regular staff meetings — daily, if necessary — a full clinical history, including the results of physical and mental examinations of each patient to the hospital, is presented for discussion. This amounts not only to a formal consultation by the whole staff in each case, but a record is made of the discussion, and of the opinion of each member upon the diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment. Careful clinical notes by physicians and nurses are entered in the record during the progress of the case, which, upon discharge, is reviewed in conference, and the diagnosis confirmed or corrected. Thus after a time an accumulation is made of very complete studies of many cases; and these by comparison and classification become most instructive and useful as a foundation for the more exact knowledge of mental diseases which must be the basis of better treatment and its better results. At stated evening medical meetings, special subjects are presented in papers for discussion, as suggested by the clinical work or in reviews of the current medical journals. Besides this the director of the laboratory plans and conducts its work, and gives instruction to the others by lectures and demonstrations. Thus enlightenment comes to all engaged in the work, with increase in knowledge and skill; and the chief end of the whole matter may be gained by an earlier and surer recovery for the patient or of a greater amelioration of this saddest of human

ills. Such methods define our problems and give interest and value to our professional work.

The Providing of Properly Qualified Physicians for Doing this Work.— Such a discussion as this should lead in its conclusion to a recommendation of practical means for gaining the end in view. No change in the present organization of our hospitals is necessary. It is only needed that the medical executive should be inspired to inaugurate the new work, and that he should have the required means for doing it. The first step is to appoint a laboratory assistant and pathologist, and to provide him with rooms for his special department, as is being done in the hospitals of Massachusetts, New York, and some other States. He should have a well-balanced medical education, by training in general medicine in the clinical work of a general hospital, by special study of nervous diseases and of neuro-pathology. Then it is most important that he should have special training and experience in some hospital where the new clinical methods of study of mental diseases have been put in practice. This training could be gained very well by a service of a year or more as a junior assistant in such a hospital. It is worth repeating that it is of the greatest importance, in the present stage of our work, to develop it on the clinical side by the study, analysis, and comprehension of the mental facts with which we have to deal.

The need of providing an adequate force in the staff of clinical assistants then follows, but this is not so great a matter in number of persons or increase of the salary roll as it has appeared to be. In a large hospital, say of eight hundred beds, with four assistant physicians, let each have a paid junior assistant. A large proportion of the patients are chronic cases, and require much less attention than the recent and acute cases. There is no better example of the way in which such work may be organized in a State hospital, within reasonable limits of cost, than at Worcester in Massachusetts. Dr. Quinby, in carrying out his long-considered purpose, has devised a plan, aided by his assistant, Dr. Meyer, formerly for two years at Kankakee, who has charge of the whole clinical service and the laboratory work. There is an account of it in the annual report of the Worcester Hospital for the year 1897. The plan adopted by Dr. Wise at the St. Lawrence Hospital, and reported by him in 1895, should be mentioned. He held daily conferences with his staff, and recommended an increase in the number of medical internes. New

York has the honor of inaugurating a great advancement in a new form in its Pathological Institute. The State hospitals in Massachusetts are taking up the new work, those at Danvers and Worcester are being followed at Taunton and Northampton. The McLean Hospital is entitled to mention, with its laboratory methods adopted ten years ago, and its clinical system gradually developed, so that it has had for some years adapted to its special uses the essentials of the plan here described. Reports are coming from some of the Western hospitals, besides Kankakee, of work on these lines.

The practical question arises, Can there be found enough young medical men, interested in such work, who will seek such appointments at small salaries? It is only necessary that a service in such a hospital shall be made to have an educational value: it should be like a general hospital in this regard. When a scientific department is established in a hospital for the insane, and it affords, as it ought to do, the opportunity for the practice of laboratory methods in studying the problems of general medicine as well as neuropathology, then it is profitable for the young graduate in medicine to spend a year in such work before entering upon general practice, especially as all cannot find opportunities in general hospitals. The instruction received becomes the larger part of the compensation.

Another practical requirement is of the first importance. It rests upon the governing authorities of the hospital, and measures their comprehension of the value of good professional work. Not only should all uncertainty be removed in respect to permanence of the service of competent medical men, but their compensation should be adequate to secure the services of those whose qualifications would command the business success which is their due in other walks of their profession. The State of New York has set a notable and just example in this regard. In a business of the magnitude of that of one of our great hospitals, requiring administrative capacity and professional attainments of a high order, the compensation may well be considered as having some relation to the volume of the business. No investment brings better returns than in capacity for the direction of the business.

In this discussion I have endeavored to set forth the best conditions now available for advancing the professional work of our hospitals for the insane, the reasons for expecting advancement in it

through the adoption of new methods, and the way in which it is proving practicable to accomplish such advancement as being reasonably within the means of every hospital. The additional cost is not relatively large, and will always be liberal when the governing authorities of the hospital have a fair appreciation of the prospective value of the work. The prime requisites now are interest in the work and its material support.

The best evidence of the correctness of the new methods is that they create at once the professional interest, and often the enthusiastic zeal, which give the assurance of future accomplishment in the work. What is wanted now is the hearty co-operation of right-minded men with the alienists who have this special professional work to do.

IX.

The Prevention of Feeble-mindedness.

PREVENTION OF FEEBLE-MINDEDNESS FROM A MORAL AND LEGAL STANDPOINT.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE, BY JAMES C. CARSON, M.D., CHAIRMAN,

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Sixty years ago Dr. Édouard C. Seguin began the instruction of an idiot boy in France; and about ten years later, now just fifty years ago, Dr. Hervey B. Wilbur, of Barre, Mass., and Dr. Samuel G. Howe, of Boston, receiving inspiration from the work of Seguin, began the first efforts in behalf of the feeble-minded in this country. They were the pioneers in the cause of the feeble-minded in America. By their zeal and enthusiasm they brought it forth to public attention, and attracted to it the first legislative interest. Their work and that of their contemporaries and successors in the past sixty years has been largely a study into the educability and amelioration of the condition of the feeble-minded; and, while prolific in good results, we think it has failed in realizing an original hope,— that of qualifying a large number of these unfortunates for safe citizenship after a term of special training and education. In proof of this statement and by way of showing some of the results of education and training, let me cite the opinions of certain authorities in their own words. Seguin, after thirty years' experience, says: —

Idiots have been improved, educated, and even cured. Not one in a thousand has been entirely refractory to treatment, not one in a hundred who has not been made more happy and healthy. More than 30 per cent. have been taught to conform to moral and social laws, and rendered capable of order, of good feeling, and of working like the third of a man. More than 40 per cent. have become cap-

able of the ordinary transactions of life under friendly control, of understanding moral and social abstractions, of working like two-thirds of a man; and 25 to 30 per cent. have come nearer and nearer the standard of manhood, till some of them will defy the scrutiny of good judges, when compared with ordinary young men and women.

It will be seen by a study of this report from one even so sanguine as was Seguin that the number of those claimed to be advanced to a condition of normal intelligence and citizenship is extremely limited, if there are any at all.

The statistics of the Royal Albert Asylum, Lancaster, England, show that "10 per cent. of the pupils discharged after seven years training were or had been earning wages, that 5 per cent. were remuneratively employed at home, and 3½ per cent. were reported to be more or less useful to their friends at home, while another 24 per cent. were said to be of little or no use. 29 per cent. had gravitated to workhouses and lunatic asylums; and the remainder, 8½ per cent., had died." Dr. Shuttleworth, in speaking of this report, says: "It must not be imagined, however, that even the best of the above were in all respects equal to persons of average intelligence. Some residual peculiarity usually remains to handicap the feeble-minded in the race of life."

The results reached in American institutions have been practically the same. Dr. Walter E. Fernald, of Massachusetts, in speaking on this subject, says: "Not over 10 or 15 per cent. of our inmates can be made self-supporting, in the sense of going out into the community and securing and retaining a situation, and prudently spending their earnings. With all our training we cannot give our pupils that indispensable something known as good, plain common sense."

Dr. Martin W. Barr, of Pennsylvania, says emphatically that "an abnormal can never become a normal child. The best we can hope to do in any case is to arouse dormant faculties, . . . train the child for that life occupation for which he may seem best fitted; . . . but weak will and indolent temperament will forever forbid for him successful competition with normal people."

The results cited do not by any means include all the benefits of the training and education of these children. Previously to the first efforts of Seguin, Wilbur, and Howe, the condition of the feeble-minded had been regarded as altogether hopeless. The past sixty

years are filled with proof that their lot, far from being hopeless, is full of promise. The experiences of these years have shown us that most of them can be taught to be cleanly, orderly, and obedient, to dress, undress, feed themselves, and perform other simple duties of life. Bad habits and dispositions can also be corrected and improved; and we have further learned that a favorable mental change almost invariably follows upon a state of physical health brought about by medical attention and treatment, exercise and occupation. And, lastly, these years have shown us how many of these children can be taught nearly all domestic and household duties, simple tasks, farming and gardening, and so, in a measure, be made self-supporting.

These results of education and training, marvellous as they are in many cases, fall short, as we have seen, of developing that indescribable something which removes the stigma of feeble-mindedness. Far be it, however, from the sentiment of this report to disparage in the least the value of the education and training of these children. Our duty on this line we think but begun. Each succeeding year unfolds to us new methods of instruction, new means of training, and new discoveries in their medical care and treatment, until we feel sanguine that their state will yet be much further advanced.

Granting, however, that these children cannot be so educated and trained as to fully or properly care for themselves without supervision, what is to be their future, and what the future of those yet untrained and abroad in every community? Their number, now over one hundred thousand in this country, precludes the hope of securing safe and watchful tutelage for those dismissed after terms of training: and yet, left to their present environment and lack of control, we see among them imbecile girls and women everywhere an easy prey to the wiles and lust of brutal men, and becoming mothers of children like themselves. The abandonment of the original hope of elevating these children to a normal mental and moral standard, and an appalling increase in the ranks of the feeble-minded and the insane, the criminal and the pauper, have within recent years been more and more strongly attracting our attention to the possible prevention of feeble-mindedness; and this question, in our judgment, takes precedence to-day over all others connected with this philanthropic body in demanding a speedy solution.

This question takes its importance primarily from the fact that the

ranks of the feeble-minded are being constantly multiplied by the feeble-minded, and, secondly, by the fact that they are also prolific in the production of crime, pauperism, illegitimacy, prostitution, insanity, and epilepsy. In 1850 there were reported in the United States census 9,149 idiots. The census of 1890 gives 95,571. The number of feeble-minded to one million of population in 1850 was 681. In 1890 it was 1,526. In other words, there has been, in forty years, an increase in round numbers from 10,000 to 100,000. Of this number, only about 7,000 are provided for in public institutions especially designed for them. The fact that there has been such an increase in their number, and that so many are unprotected and unprovided for, is sufficiently deplorable in itself; but even more so is the fact that the existence of so many feeble-minded establishes a centre from which emanates an almost endless chain of evil. These 95,000 uncared for we find to be not only a burden to their relatives and friends, but also a burden and menace to the public by their reproduction of other mental weakness,— insanity, epilepsy, pauperism, illegitimacy, and every form of degeneracy.

In June, 1890, there were reported in the United States 106,000 insane, 40,000 deaf and dumb, 50,000 blind in both eyes, 93,000 blind in one eye, 73,000 paupers in the almshouses, and between 90,000 and 100,000 tramps. How many of these insane, deaf-mutes, blind, paupers, and tramps, not to mention the criminal and other degenerates, are either mentally feeble or the progeny of feeble-minded parents? The reports of the infamous Juke family, of "Margaret, the Mother of Criminals," and of "The Tribe of Ishmael," with which you are all familiar, answer this question pointedly, their originally feeble-minded parentage resulting in pauperism, blindness, prostitution, crime, and degeneracy to an appalling extent.

As has been stated, we have in this country an army of from 90,000 to 100,000 tramps. The late Dr. Isaac N. Kerlin, in speaking of moral imbecility, once stated that he had "examined and interrogated many tramps, and was ready to aver that the tramp is a low, cunning imbecile." We know not how many prostitutes our country harbors, but how much more even would they become objects of our pity, were we to know the number of them in whom mental weakness was the cause of their loathsome condition, the sinned against rather than the sinner! Mr. Howard Edwards, a philanthropist of Philadelphia, who has spent many years in the rescue of fallen women,

once stated that he felt "the cause of prostitution to be mainly mental and moral instability or imbecility, and not downright wantonness."

And so, too, with the criminal; for Mr. Z. R. Brockway, of the Elmira Reformatory, reports, in 1,463 examinations, 1,082 as "having absolutely no moral sense." And he gives it as his opinion that "something that may be called imbecility lies at the foundation of a vast amount of crime."

What, then, in other words, is the panorama that confronts us? Not alone an appalling number of unfortunates demanding our sympathy and care, but, in addition to that, a mighty host of defectives, without custody or proper protection, procreating others of their kind, and constantly increasing the ranks of every form of degeneracy.

This condition of affairs, so easily related, we find beset with many difficulties in the way of its solution. The uncharity of awaiting the self-extirpation of this class, and so a "survival of the fittest," far from receiving consideration in this Conference, would be a parody on its name. It is obvious, then, that, if we do not lend ourselves to this unfeeling disregard of wretchedness, something in the nature of the prevention of its furtherance is our line of duty,— a duty of paramount importance to the welfare of society and the State.

The literal stamping out of imbecility we all recognize as impossible, such a thing being precluded by the nature of its origin,— an array of mental feebleness at once confronting us, whose causes are so remote, uncertain, indirect, and so interwoven one with another as to make such a task impossible.

The accomplishment of any practical benefit in the line of prevention of feeble-mindedness can only follow upon a deeper study into its causation and a wider public dissemination of our knowledge. Of the many diverse and complicated causes of feeble-mindedness, none is so important for our consideration as that of heredity.

A study of the records of our institutions will convince even the sceptic that direct heredity is one of the greatest sources, if not the greatest source, of supply to this increasing number of degenerates.

In speaking on this subject, Ribot, in his work upon "Heredity," says: "All forms of mental activity are transmissible,— instincts, perceptive faculties, imagination, aptitude for the fine arts, reason, aptitude for science and abstract duties, sentiments, passions, force of character. Nor are the morbid forms less transmissible than the

normal, as we have seen in the case of insanity, hallucination, and idiocy."

Grouped under the head of heredity, we find intemperance, consanguinity, phthisis, general neuroses, insanity, epilepsy, and idiocy. Let us consider some of these various causes briefly, others more at length.

Our statistics show that intemperance on the part of one parent or both occurs so frequently that at a glance, if considered alone, it might be thought a potent cause of idiocy. But intemperance, like many other causes, is often only an evidence of a weakness in the individual, and is really but the manifestation of some physical or psychical decadence in the person himself or in his ancestry. While we believe that intemperance *per se* in the father or mother may, and sometimes does, result in the propagation of idiotic children, yet the tendency to idiocy is more intensified when the intemperance is associated with other weakness, mental, moral, or physical.

In inquiring into the question of hereditary causes, unless the whole family history is positively known, some allowance must always be made for the disposition on the part of friends to conceal some family defects. There are few persons who cannot point, if they choose, to some stain on their family history,— something of which they are not proud, and which they prefer to keep in the background. This is especially true in families where feeble-mindedness shows itself. The parents themselves do not like to feel or acknowledge that they are in any way the offspring of defective stock or poor blood. The saying, "There's a black sheep in every fold," is often applied to families, and, in its broadest sense, is as often a pertinent application. Another familiar saying, "Like father, like son," is still further exemplified by the fact that many persons who marry are unfit to do so. By this, I do not refer altogether to the existence of neurotic disorders and the insane tendency, but to a condition bordering on imbecility. One frequently sees such persons who are married; and in many of the applications received at the Syracuse Institution it is stated, of the father or mother or both, that they are weak-minded or below the standard of ordinary intelligence. When the father or mother is little better than an imbecile, it is not to be wondered at that the child is idiotic or imbecile. Moreover, if such an one be, in a measure, physically degenerate or scrofulous or deformed or intemperate, an habitual criminal or morally polluted, what can be expected of such a parent other than idiotic offspring?

A popular idea prevails that consanguineous marriages are largely productive of cases of idiocy, but the idea is not sustained by the evidence. Out of 1,000 of the recent applications for admission received at the Syracuse State Institution, 16 were the children of first cousins, 5 of second cousins, and 10 were of incestuous parentage, making only a trifle over 3 per cent.; and in only three of these cases were both the parents reported healthy.

The observations of Hüth and others into the subject of consanguineous marriages have pretty conclusively shown that, if any mental or physical defect exists in either parent or both, defects in their children are likely to be intensified, but otherwise not. If both parents have mental and physical health,— that is, are free from disease, defects, and infirmities,— their children are as likely to be healthy as are the children of others.

Relatively to the causation of idiocy by phthisical inheritance, let it suffice for me to quote to you the results of the investigations of Dr. J. Langdon Down at the Earlswood Asylum. He states that at the time of his investigations the statistics of London showed the deaths from phthisis to be 115 per 1,000 of the general mortality, while at Earlswood they were 398 per 1,000, the significance of this being enhanced by the fact that the general mortality at Earlswood is four times that of any ordinary community. He found that 31 per cent. of his cases gave an unmistakable tubercular family history.

The frequency of the occurrence of epilepsy among imbeciles, and as a cause of imbecility, is a matter of common observation, and especially so in institution experience. The late Dr. Kerlin, in an examination of 300 feeble-minded children, found that "22 per cent. were epileptics," and that in "52 per cent. there was an epileptoid family history." Dr. George H. Knight says that, in his experience "in tracing the histories of imbecile children," he found "epilepsy existed of itself or as a complication in 60 per cent. of the cases examined"; and he cites the case of an epileptic woman who became the mother of fifteen defective children.

Probably the most important rôle in the causation of feeble-mindedness by heredity is seen in the direct inheritance of the mental defect from imbecile parentage. You are all familiar with cases bearing out this point, and they can be as many times multiplied. Succeeding years bring out new illustrations,— not with the idea of establishing any new facts, but to awaken the public to the

importance of the lessons they teach. In 1885 a girl, an illegitimate imbecile, was admitted to the Syracuse State Institution, whose mother and a half-sister of the mother had fortunately both become inmates of the Newark Asylum, but, unfortunately, not until after the mother had borne this child and the half-sister,— two illegitimate children. The application further stated that it was believed that neither the mother, grandmother, nor the great-grandmother of the girl was ever married, and that, so far as known, all were born illegitimately in the county poorhouse.

We have at the present time two imbecile children — considered brother and sister, but probably only half-brother and sister — whose mother at the time of their admission was an inmate of a county poorhouse, and who was, besides, the mother of a younger idiotic child, which was also blind. All were illegitimate, and born in the county poorhouse.

We cite another instance of an imbecile boy, seven years of age, recently admitted. Two years ago we admitted a brother and a half-brother of this boy, and at the same time received an application for an older half-brother,— all imbeciles. The descriptive blank in the case of the recent admission stated, under the head of ascribed cause: "Supposed to be deficiency of both parents, who are vicious and dissolute, especially the mother. The father intemperate, and the mother weak-minded." And, further, that the mother had previously "borne eight or nine children, and two since, the last two being illegitimate"; and that, of the eleven or twelve children born to this mother, "most of them were idiotic or weak-minded."

As a further illustration, some years ago a philanthropic gentleman brought us two imbecile girls from an orphan asylum in one of the smaller cities of the State. Upon their admission he remarked to me with considerable feeling and emphasis: "Doctor, I hope you will take care of these girls, and keep them in custody as long as they live. Each of them has relatives in nearly every town in our county, not one of whom but is imbecile, insane, epileptic, a criminal, a drunkard, or a prostitute."

While these few cases only have been cited, illustrating the causative factors in the production of feeble-mindedness, you are all fully aware, I am sure, how many times over similar cases could be added from the records of our institutions; and, more important still, they are convincing to us all that the facts they establish are

deplorable and demand speedy correction. We do not assemble from year to year to state our facts and to advance our plans for their relief, thinking that the public and our legislatures are only awaiting the opportunity to take cognizance of them. We reiterate our statements from year to year with the view of awakening public interest as to their importance, and hoping, through the public, to ultimately command our legislators. The process, like most movements in the reformation of evils, is necessarily slow.

In considering measures for the relief of the conditions laid before you, we see at once that they have largely to do with the lawful or unlawful wedlock of these defectives, its consequences, its license, and its prevention; and certain moral and legal means for relief at once suggest themselves for our consideration. The production of feeble-mindedness by intemperance, consanguineous marriages, phthisis, epilepsy, and general neuroses, shows us how little understood and how meagrely disseminated is the knowledge of the science of physiology and hygiene and the laws of heredity. While great strides have undoubtedly been made within recent years on educational lines, yet we believe a search into the causation of feeble-mindedness alone, not to mention other forms of degeneracy, will convince the most sceptical that there is a pressing need of an increased education of the people upon these subjects so important to the interests of society, humanity, and the State.

I cannot better express to you the importance of this subject than in the words of Mrs. Catharine W. Brown, of Barre, Mass., writing several years ago on the prevention of mental disease: "So long as men believe that all afflictions touching the body or mind are special providences, miraculously sent to them for their spiritual good, they cannot be expected to exert themselves for their prevention; but let the community be convinced that sickness, insanity, and idiocy are too often the result of ignorance or sin, and they will be ready to ask, What shall we do to be saved from material death? To this query the science of physiology gives wisest answer," but to-day it receives far less attention than its importance demands. Parents wholly ignorant of the science themselves despise the apparent simplicity of the practical English text-books, and seek for their children a smattering of Greek and Latin, which sound learned because incomprehensible. So the boys and girls dig Greek roots and rattle equations of unknown quantities, but fail to acquire this

self-knowledge of vital importance to themselves, their children, and the whole human race."

Considering the vast import of insanity, epilepsy, and feeble-mindedness in relation to their own and other forms of degeneracy, a law prescribing some extraordinary penalty should be upon the statute books in every State for the seduction of any insane, epileptic, or feeble-minded woman; and, further, every State in our Union ought surely to prohibit the marriage of any person of either sex belonging to any one of these classes.

With reference to the wide-spread army of degenerates scattered here and there throughout the land, and who are annually adding to the general plethora of feeble-mindedness, we believe that humanity, economy, the protection of society, and the prevention of degeneracy demand the permanent sequestration of the entire body of the feeble-minded within our borders in institutions. Especially should safe custody and State guardianship apply to every feeble-minded girl and woman of the child-bearing age. Besides these restraining influences mentioned, ought we not to expect great and growing benefits to future generations by the compulsory study and a thorough teaching of physiology, hygiene, and the laws of heredity in all of our higher schools and colleges?

There is an old aphorism that "an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." With many of the diseases which afflict humanity, this old aphorism, by the discoveries of modern medical science, has doubled the force of its original application. So with diseases, it is equally applicable to many of the conditions which affect the general moral and social economy. A very large part, perhaps one-half, of the misery and wretchedness we see about us is, we believe, avertible. The truth and importance of this we are learning more and more to realize. In the near future we believe an educated public and ensuing prohibitory legislation must and will strike at the sources whence these evils spring, and prevent them.

PREVENTION FROM A LEGAL AND MORAL STANDPOINT.

BY DR. GEORGE H. KNIGHT, M.A.,

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I recently saw in print the following statement,— that, "of the entire population of the United States, an average of one person in every five is at the present time in a public almshouse or other charitable institution, or is being assisted by some relief-giving organization." This statement is not only startling, but it brings forcibly to the minds of thinking people the question whether we are not at the present time giving too much attention to the care and relief of the dependent classes and too little to the study of prevention.

The consideration and discussion of the best way of providing for the feeble-minded, including the epileptic as well, have been so generally taken up at the various sessions of this Conference that the subject long ago escaped from the narrow point of view of the specialist. At the present time it is so fortunate as to claim the intelligent thought of the average citizen interested in charity in its general sense. I use the word "fortunate" advisedly in this connection. It is as true in matters of reform as it is in business that, if you want to accomplish anything satisfactorily, you must bring it into the every-day thought and experience of as many people as possible.

The State Boards of Charity have helped the superintendents of institutions to familiarize the public with those facts which the pioneers in this work felt compelled to harp upon constantly in the early days. The National Conference of Charities and Correction has spread broadcast, through its members, the knowledge of what has been done by teaching, by custodial care, by manual training, and by medical oversight for those grades of the defective class which come under the head of the feeble-minded. That which is now being so successfully worked out in the colony for the epileptic we hope in the near future to accomplish for every one of this class. There is no longer need of argument to persuade an intelligent community that "it pays" to provide State care for the mentally and morally deficient.

That the imbecile cannot work in competition with the normal man is self-evident. An intelligent State policy demands that he shall be housed, fed, nursed, clothed, and taught as far as may be; and, when we shall have put him in the way of following the common laws of order and decency, we have started him on the up-grade. Even the simplest custodial care is a great step in advance of the neglect of former years. We have reached our sober second thought for the imbecile. The plain facts in the case do not warrant us in claiming for him the high degree of attainment our early enthusiasm led us to hope for. My own conviction is that, as time goes on, we shall do less in the school-room and more in the workshop and field. Institutions we must have; and in them we must be able to combine minimum of cost with maximum of care, since all placing-out systems are valueless in this work. All who have had experience in finding homes for children know that the slightest physical defect is a great detriment, even when there is perfect mental balance. Nothing is truer than that we all judge and are influenced by appearances. Consider, then, the difficulties when to the physical defect almost universal in the imbecile there are added the mental peculiarities which set him apart from his fellows. There is no remedy for this. No logic, no appeal to sentiment, charity, or humanity, will avail with the mass of people. It is a state of affairs we must accept and provide for. Nobody wants the imbecile, not even those who are bound most closely to him by ties of blood. He is an innocent element of disorder everywhere, outside of associations with his own kind. Defenceless, an easy victim to injustice and neglect, his very weakness appeals to the best that lies in humanity. That is why it is possible to secure for him the high order of individual teaching necessary and possible for each case, no matter how large the institution. Every institution for the feeble-minded stands as an object-lesson in advanced civilization. The pauper can sometimes be made self-supporting, the incorrigible, so called, may sometimes be given a new start, the insane have a chance of recovery. Every other class of dependent and delinquent has one or more chances of altering his condition. The feeble-minded alone is the exception. He, unfortunately, is handicapped from the cradle to the grave. When you have done your very best for him, his highest attainment is to become what some one has called "two-thirds of a man." The question that we must face in view of the terrible yearly increase of this

class is not, What shall we do with this fraction of humanity, but How shall we get rid of it? How shall we cut off the supply? That insanity, pauperism, and crime produce imbecility we know. That imbecility produces these in turn we are beginning to find out. That heredity is a direct cause of imbecility no one denies who has given the problem intelligent study. How shall we wipe out heredity? For the so-called wards of the State, those who are already in institutions, the answer is comparatively easy. State care for a lifetime is the simplest, most civilized and economical solution of the problem. In the case of these we can consider that the remedy lies in our own hands. But, in face of the fact that there are at least one hundred thousand feeble-minded persons of various ages and conditions who are outside of the direct restraining influences of an institution, it is clear no half-way measures will prevent the increase of this number. What is considered the sacred law of individual right places it within the power of a large per cent. of these to marry, and inevitably to reproduce their kind.

If we are to strike a telling blow in the interests of prevention, we must influence public sentiment and legislation for the sake of morality and permanent good.

In effect, according to the statute, we are all wards of the State under a certain age. However bright mentally or strong physically, we can neither make a will, convey property, nor marry except through the agency and written consent of a parent or guardian. Without the said consent the registrar who issues a certificate of marriage to a minor is subjected to a heavy penalty. Now, if the State can enact such laws for the protection of its normal citizens, what shall hinder its placing the age limit of the feeble-minded at that unattainable period for them which is commonly called years of discretion? I use the term "feeble-minded" in its broadest sense. Under that head will come the epileptic, incorrigible, or moral imbecile, and the insane, as well as the idiot and imbecile of the ordinary type.

I am well aware that this suggestion carried out would strike a blow directly at the root of what is called the law of individual right, but I claim that the mentally unfit have no individual right to reproduce themselves. Being mentally unfit, we cannot expect the moral side of the case to appeal to any one of them. We cannot instil into the feeble-minded any sense of responsibility for bringing either a legitimate or an illegitimate child into the world. They are and must

remain illegitimate parents of illegitimate children from first to last. That which they will not, cannot, do for themselves, the law of the land must do for them. The sane, normal, every-day people of this country must have a chance.

As Professor Brewer of Yale said at the New Haven Conference a few years ago, thanks to modern science, charity, and humanity, we are saving everything that is unfit; and it is the greatest test that can be brought to bear upon our civilization. Once here, save them we must, for humanity's sake; but, as far as we can, let us cut off the supply at the fountain-head.

In the words of Dr. Maudsley, "It is certain that lunatics and criminals are as much manufactured articles as are steam-engines and calico-printing machines, only the processes of the organic manufactory are so complex that we are not able to follow them. They are neither accidents nor anomalies in the universe, but come by law and testify to causality; and it is the business of science to find out what the causes are, and by what laws they work."

That which I advocate could never become what is called a federal law. Perhaps "never" is a strong word; but, at the least calculation, it would take years to bring it about, and we cannot afford to wait. With an annual increase of over two thousand of the feeble-minded alone, we absolutely cannot afford to wait. But let each State enact its own law.

We move slowly in conservative Connecticut, but we have had upon the statute books the past three years the following prohibitory law: —

AN ACT CONCERNING CRIMES AND PUNISHMENTS.

SECTION 1. No man and woman, either of whom is epileptic, imbecile, or feeble-minded, shall intermarry or live together as husband and wife when the woman is under forty-five years of age. Any person violating, or attempting to violate, any of the provisions of this section, shall be imprisoned in the State prison not less than three years.

SECT. 2. Any selectman, or any other person who shall advise, aid, abet, cause, or assist in procuring, or countenance any violation of section one of this act, or the marriage of any pauper when the woman in such marriage is under forty-five years of age, shall be fined not less than one thousand dollars or imprisoned not less than one year or both.

SECT. 3. Every man who shall carnally know any female under the age of forty-five years who is epileptic, imbecile, feeble-minded, or a pauper, shall be imprisoned in the State prison not less than three years. Every man, who is epilep-

tic, who shall carnally know any female under the age of forty-five years, and every female under the age of forty-five years who shall consent to be carnally known by any man who is epileptic, imbecile, or feeble-minded, shall be imprisoned in the State prison not less than three years.

Approved July 4, 1895.

Every man here, every member of this Conference, every State Board of Charity, can influence legislation in this matter.

Science is slow. To become science, detail must, above everything else, be accurate. To prove every step takes time. Nothing is harder to get at than truth in the history of cases, as every medical superintendent of an institution for the idiot and imbecile can testify. This will exist so long as imbecility is looked upon as a disgrace instead of a misfortune. A physical or mental imperfection is, in the popular mind, a greater affliction than a moral one. The statement that we are all sinners we accept pretty passively. The statement that we are all feeble in mind because of that, or feeble in will, even in the least degree, we should resent to a man. This universal feeling acts against making rapid progress in getting at the hidden causes of imbecility. We can never know accurately all the causes which result in the production of defective human beings. The mystery of life is too great. There is too much theory to overcome; but, when we do feel firm ground under our feet, we must advance. When we can prove, as we have, that a certain definite per cent. of the histories of children received into the institutions for the feeble-minded show epilepsy as a cause or as a complication, and that hitherto we have placed no legal obstacle in the way of repeating these conditions, our way is clear in this direction at least.

Morally, every citizen is responsible for the legal increase of imbecility in his own community. Morally, he is responsible for the increase of illegitimate imbecility in his own community. Every man *is* his brother's keeper to this extent. In the face of the terrible increase of this class, by what we may call *known* methods, every one of us must strike a blow for prevention. At least, let us wipe out the stain of legalizing the production of idiocy, imbecility, insanity, and crime.

X.

The Defective and Dependent Classes.

THE REMEDIAL, ECONOMIC, AND ETHICAL VALUE OF LABOR.

BY WILLIAM P. SPRATLING, M.D.,

MEDICAL SUPERINTENDENT, CRAIG COLONY, SONYEA, NEW YORK.

At the last meeting of this association, held a year ago in Toronto, it was my pleasure to present a paper on the education of the epileptic, with especial reference to the value of the industrial forms of education.

In that paper I endeavored to show the value to the epileptic of systematic employment along proper lines. I endeavored to show how faithfully all the avenues of occupation, when of the proper sort and used as educational agencies, would inevitably lead to the moral and physical improvement, and often to the absolute cure of the disease, or condition,— whichever you choose to call it,— from which the epileptic suffers.

I spoke for the industrial as against all other forms of education for the epileptic, not failing, however, to recognize the necessity for some schooling for this class directed chiefly to the cultivation of the purely intellectual forces.

The plea for the industrial education of the defective classes was based upon a knowledge of its value for the epileptic,— a knowledge that came from experience that had demonstrated beyond question what such an education could do and what it had done; and, while the argument in favor of such an education was based primarily upon the laws of physiology, of practical ethics, and of sound hygiene, its economic feature was incidentally touched upon.

But that feature alone possesses no merit in comparison with its broader, deeper, more vital and uplifting influences that are made

possible only through the laws of ethics and the best possible conditions of bodily hygiene begotten by systematic and well-directed labor.

It will be my aim to lay this matter before you in such a way that you will be convinced that it is the welfare, and that alone, of the defective and dependent classes that leads me to plead for their education along industrial lines, and that I am not led into recommending such schooling because it happens to possess an element of economy.

Candor, however, compels me to state that I would not, on the other hand, study for a moment to ignore whatever of economic virtue it may possess. Indeed, I think this phase of the question is worthy of all consideration and the most conscientious study on the part of those engaged in the care of such classes, both for reasons purely economic and for the greater fact that the solution of the entire ethical consideration of the question we have under review — namely, labor for the defective and dependent classes — lies almost wholly within diversified forms of labor properly prescribed and properly executed.

By way of a sharply defined and unmistakable illustration, as showing the necessity for the exercise of economy on the part of the State in the care of its vast multitude of helpless and dependent beings, I need only call your attention to the fact that the State of New York alone spends more than seven millions of dollars annually in the maintenance of its public charities, and that public and private charities in the same State and during the same period of time expend a sum almost treble that amount.

If it is necessary to do this much for charity, let it come. But if, at the same time, it can be done at less cost by a little more universal and vigorous recognition of the value and necessity for industrial training, then let us have more industrial training and better and improved methods of education for those who permanently seek public alms.

Such a course would not hurt charity. It would help it. Such a course would not rob charity of one atom of its humanity. It would add to it an untold value that, in the absence of adequate experimentation, it is impossible to estimate.

Of the remedial value of labor for the defective and dependent classes I shall first speak.

The human body is a complex machine of the highest type. It is sustained in its operations by the food that is consumed as fuel, which fuel is in turn converted into power. Of necessity, food is diversified in kind. Fulfilling its ultimate functions, it produces a great variety of forces marvellously complex and specialized in their operations.

The nitrogenous foods, consisting mostly of meats, go to produce energy of a certain kind; the starchy foods, made up of cereals, potatoes, and rice, go to produce forces and energy of another kind; while fats, butter, and fish are each necessary for the creation of still other forms of vital energy and power.

The process of the vitalization of food elements, so to speak, takes place in the ultimate cells of the body; and upon the degree of perfection with which this is accomplished depend absolutely the health and strength of the individual.

Thus it is that the source of all the force, life, and energy of the body must be sought in the molecular life, or combustion going on throughout the entire economy.

In every action of the human body,— whenever we make a movement, draw a breath, change a muscle of expression, or conceive a passing fancy,— molecular death has occurred, and a quantity of potential energy has been liberated.

This force, having entered the body in a latent state, as food in the different varieties we have just enumerated, is stored by means of the blood in the cellular structures, awaiting the demands for its ignition with the oxygen circulating in the blood. It is here in the cells that combustion takes place, and force, heat, and life are generated. After this process is over, after the food elements have served their purpose, the cellular elements are in a state of partial disintegration; and, as débris, they are removed from the system by the blood, to be replaced by active new cells.

This action on the part of the cells is continuous from birth to death, and this, in a word, constitutes "life"; and upon the celerity and thoroughness with which these processes are repeated, upon the "newness," as McLaren has expressed it, of the individual cell, will depend the life and strength of the individual.

It is not my purpose to go to an elaborate extent in reviewing the field of the digestion and assimilation of food. I have spoken of it only so far that I may demonstrate the value of proper digestion,

assimilation, cell repair, and cell reproduction in so far as all these things are influenced by proper regulation of rest and exercise.

Now let us briefly refer to the effects of exercise as they are exemplified and obtained through proper and systematic exercise.

The direct effect of exercise is an increased demand for oxygen to produce the combustion that is ever going on in every cell in the body. More air passing through the lungs means quickened breathing, acceleration of the pulmonary circulation, and at the same time an increase in the amount of carbonic acid expired. The latter is exactly what we desire to get rid of. It is a poison, and should be eliminated from the economy as rapidly as it is produced. Exercise brings all these things about; and this has been amply and clearly illustrated by Dr. Edward Smith in a series of investigations, as the result of which he determined the following facts: —

Taking the amount of air expired in a recumbent position as 1, it is increased on standing to 1.03, on walking one mile an hour to 1.09, on walking six miles an hour to 7, on riding or trotting to 4.05, and on swimming to 4.33.

The circulation in exercise is always increased; more blood is carried to all muscles, tissues, and organs of the body; the amount of perspiration is doubled; the appetite is largely increased; digestion is more perfect; absorption is more rapid; the circulation of the blood in the liver is stimulated; the entire vascular system in the abdominal cavity, and effete and poisonous materials and débris are more quickly removed from the body through the various excretory exits provided for that purpose. Waste material is replaced with new. The old was dead, the new living,— the old, inert, the new, full of life.

It is coming to be generally accepted that the body is, in a measure, a laboratory for the manufacture of poisons. Bouchard is the foremost advocate and investigator along the line of auto-intoxicants, and his teachings are beginning to find an audience wherever scientific medicine is known. Auto-intoxicants play a well-known part in the production of epilepsy. This statement is not made because the actual disease-breeding element in the auto-toxic state has been isolated, but finds its bulwark of defence in the field of clinical medicine as applied to the rational treatment of epilepsy. The relief of dietetic errors, the checking of putrefactive changes in the alimentary canal in certain well-defined cases that have come under my

observation, served to demonstrate beyond question the connection between maldigestion and assimilation and convulsive disorders.

And this takes us back to the effects of exercise; for it is that that most frequently and effectively stimulates a flagging digestion, induces healthy metabolism, and serves, through improved nutrition, to build up the body in all its tissues, specialized organs and functions, in the manner that is so clearly demanded for the welfare of the epileptic.

The effects of exercise for the defective and dependent classes have an especial value in the fact that the muscles and the brain are developed by reciprocal action, and in later life the direct relation is found to exist between great physical strength and the possession of those intellectual powers which naturally we ascribe to men holding commanding positions of authority.

Ancient, mediæval, and modern history alike contain numerous instances to prove the accuracy of this statement. Samson was a judge in Israel. Pompey was equal in strength to any soldier in his command. Cæsar was naturally of delicate constitution, suffering from severe headaches, and probably an epileptic, but by continued exercise became an athlete, "admirable in all manly sports, and surpassed by none" in enduring the hardships and fatigue of a military campaign. Lycurgus not only laid down all the laws which for five hundred years made Lacedæmon the chief city of Greece, but was able to outrun all the mob who persecuted him and forced him to seek relief in the sanctuary. And so I might go through a long list of such names, including Cicero, Coriolanus, Themistocles, Theseus, Romulus, Remus, and many others of that remote period and others of later date; but it is unnecessary.

Along this same line, and in addition to these well-known physiological truths and facts from history bearing upon the correlated condition of brain and body in the same individual, as regards their inherent and acquired vitality, my views as regards the value of physical exercise for the correlated development of the brain and muscles of the epileptic are, perhaps, radical. If they are, experience alone has made them so. I firmly believe that a definite relationship exists between fits and no labor and labor and no fits, and I here declare that facts are within my command to report a score of cases in substantiation of this statement.

In addition to the building up of the epileptic physically, improving his circulation, his digestion, his powers of assimilation, absorption,

and elimination, quickening his powers of perception and kindling into action the slumbering fires of his rapidly dying energy and ambition, and reclaiming him to health, to action, and to good citizenship in the fullest possible sense of the term, I am fully convinced that labor for him — that is, the daily and systematic use of his muscles in the performance of well-guided tasks — has a peculiar and intrinsic interest.

As specifically showing the value of labor for the epileptic, I reported the case to this association last year of a man twenty-eight years old, who, prior to his admission to the Colony, had been an epileptic for fifteen years. For five years daily, prior to his admission to the Colony, he had averaged from 3 to 5 seizures a day, — from 75 to 125 a month. During his first month at the Colony he had 110; during the second, 98; during the third, 3; and for two years ending on the 27th of last April he did not have a seizure, and on that date was discharged from the Colony recovered.

Medicine did not cure him, for he had none. He had been drugged into stupidity and extreme bodily emaciation. He had been sinned against to the remotest degree in the use of the bromides. We withdrew them all, put him on the right kind of food, and put him in the field with a sack of potatoes over his shoulder, and bade him Godspeed in his work of recovery. He got well. Why? For the simple reason that he was made to obey proper directions as to food, exercise, labor, and right living along all the lines of daily action, and, in so doing, fortified a congenitally weak organism, further reduced by physical and moral shortcomings, in a way that enabled it to withstand the influences that formerly provoked in him an epileptic seizure.

As further illustrating the high value of labor for the defective and dependent classes, I offer the following: —

Dr. J. C. Carson, superintendent of the New York State Institution for Feeble-minded Children at Syracuse, in response to an inquiry, wrote as follows: —

> The experience of the past fifty years of those interested in the special training and development of the feeble-minded leads in the direction that efforts should more be given to the training of their hands rather than their intellects. They cannot become scholars or skilled in mechanics and the arts, but their hands may be trained to perform simple unskilled labor. If we can teach them, the boys

to become useful in the shops or in the garden and on the farm with the rake and the hoe, and the girls in the kitchen and laundry or with the needle, the brush, or the broom, then has some degree of right development been reached. To secure such development in institutions, the school affords the best means for their moral, physical, industrial, and intellectual training. In the school, under methods properly varied, they are kept interested and occupied; and, by making the physical and industrial parts of the training the most important, they become fitted and prepared for useful employment after the school age is past. Occupation is, then, the great remedial factor, health and usefulness the objects sought, the former essential to the latter; and so in turn "the working hand makes strong the working brain."

At the same time, Feb. 15, 1898, Dr. Carson made a classification of the patients under his care, as follows,— idiots, 28; idio-imbecilic, 81; feeble-minded, 428; and again divided them as follows,—teachable, 228; unteachable, 94; not further teachable, 215.

And he gave the percentage of each class employed, as follows: first, at labor designed to be educational, 47 per cent.: second, at labor designed to be educational and remedial, 23 per cent.; third, at labor having an economic value as its chief feature, 37 per cent.

This is an excellent showing, both for the number employed and for the diversity of educational measures in use for the accomplishment of different purposes.

Dr. M. W. Barr, chief physician of the Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-minded Children at Elwyn, wrote as follows: —

The value of employment for the mentally defective cannot be too highly estimated. Believing as we do that "the working hand makes strong the working brain," we find here a remedy for many ills,— a stimulant for the apathetic, a sedative for the excitable. It arouses dormant faculties, keeps from mischief, diverts evil thoughts, and conducts nervous energy into healthful channels.

As an economic factor, the value of the imbecile in farm and household service is already demonstrated; while manual training opens up new possibilities for him in the many trades, looking not alone to self-support, but doubtless in time contributing largely toward the expenses of the helpless ones in the asylum department attached to every institution. Again, from an ethical standpoint, this finding an aim and object in life, creating self-respect, is not only advance from pauperism to a basis of true living, but it renders more permanent a development once attained, and is the surest safeguard against retrogression. The moral imbecile also, in that entire

sequestration from the world which society for mutual protection must shortly demand, will find in constant and congenial employment his true and only happiness.

At Elwyn, on Feb. 15 last, 329 patients, out of a total population of approximately 950, were regularly employed at labor having an economic value as its chief feature.

At the same school my attention was called to a boy who, on his admission to the school five years ago, could not perform the simplest manual or finger work of any kind unaided. He did not know enough to respond, when spoken to. He was put in the shoe shop, and in five years his education along the line of shoemaking has been carried to the extent that his employer declared that the boy could go out into the outside world and earn twenty dollars a month in the prosecution of his trade.

Such a result speaks volumes for education, for ethics, and for economy, and should justly discourage the stoutest-hearted advocate in the expression of fatalistic views on human evolution.

Dr. Bernstein, first assistant physician at the State Custodial Asylum at Rome, N.Y., expressed his views on the value of labor for the defective and dependent classes as follows, in support of this statement: —

There can be no such condition as mental or physical standstill. It must either be a process of progression or retrogression. Therefore, all employment must be remedial, as it tends to not only advancement through its educational aspect, but it also serves as a diversion, which is in itself a decidedly remedial agent.

I could cite a number of cases, of which the following is a fair illustration. J. A., age 26, male, English, admitted in May, 1894. He had formerly been in the Willard State Hospital for some years. On admission he was quite active, observing, tidy, cleanly, understood simple expressions, articulated freely,— in fact, could carry on quite a connected conversation. He sang a great deal and was very fond of music, visited with his associates, was very emotional, lacked application and persistency, but was industrially disposed, could be sent on little errands, etc. He was quite strong physically, but poorly nourished. He has for the last three years been irregularly employed about the grounds and buildings. During this time there would be long intervals when there would be no special object in employing him, this especially during the winter, during which time I observed that he would become stupid, unobserving, inactive, ceased to talk except when spoken to, also to sing, showed less love for music. He would also grow very untidy and filthy.

During the three winters and a part of the fourth since his admission the condition has progressed, becoming more exaggerated with each return of the season of activity, until about January last, when it excited in me a wish to see if the condition could not be improved or at least not allowed to progress. Since January last, when systematic employment was begun by giving him regular work in marching, with dumb-bells, and lessons in dancing, when he could not be otherwise employed in shovelling snow, etc., I have found that he is gradually improving. In one month he had ceased to be uncleanly, where he was extremely so before, never thinking to obey any of the calls of nature. He also became more tidy, manifested some interest in his surroundings, and is now, in March, in about the same condition mentally as we have heretofore found him in about the middle of summer, when he would ordinarily have been most active.

I think this will not only illustrate very vividly the remedial value of employment, but also the economical; for this case is no exaggeration or exception to many others in this institution, who have presented a like improvement or brightening up under regular and systematic work. Whether such work has or has not at present an economical value, certainly these cases take less time and attention from the employees on the wards where they were formerly a burden.

The classification of those under treatment in the Rome Custodial Asylum was given on February 15 last, as follows: Idiots, 54; imbeciles, 261; feeble-minded, 87; epileptic, 20. Percentage of each employed: First, at labor designed to be educational: idiots, 2; imbeciles, 69; feeble-minded, 24. Second, at labor designed to be education and remedial: idiots, 4; imbeciles, 58; feeble-minded, 13; epileptics, 7. Third, at labor having economic value as its chief feature: imbeciles, 50; feeble-minded, 23.

In the April 2, 1898, issue of the *British Medical Journal*, in an article on the "Education of the Epileptic," we find this statement:

Idleness seems, indeed, to be in some respects more detrimental to epileptics than to normal children, as in the former there is the risk of irregular discharges if nervous energy be not properly utilized.

A circular note sent out by the National Society for Employment of Epileptics in England, and based upon the care of epileptics in the Colony Chalfont St. Peter, has this note:—

The Colonists, it is hoped, will always remember that regular occupation is the best remedy for the malady from which they suffer.

Work of various kinds is provided, and each Colonist is expected to engage in such occupation as is considered by the committee and staff to be most suitable, and to take a willing part in the work of the house, when required. The usual working time is about seven hours daily, except during the short days of winter, when it is somewhat less.

And now, to show how fixed is our faith in the value of labor as a remedial, ethical, and economic factor in the treatment of the defective and dependent classes, and to show you that we put into practice that which we advocate, I submit the following: —

The Craig Colony was opened for patients on Jan. 27, 1896. The daily average number of patients under treatment for the eight remaining months of the fiscal year ending Oct. 1, 1896, was 83.12. There was expended during that time for maintenance $28,258.24. There were produced on the farm, in the garden, and in the various industrial departments just organizing, articles and food-stuffs to the value of $14,230.20, being 50 per cent. of the entire amount spent for maintenance for the year; and these results were obtained largely through the use of epileptic labor.

The average daily number of patients under care and treatment during the second year, ending Oct. 1, 1897, was 175.4. The net cost of maintenance for that year was $45,973.03. During the same year there were produced on the farm, in the garden, and by the various industries, articles and products to the value of $25,810.08 or 56.4 per cent. of the entire cost of maintenance. During that year the cost of farm help was not increased, but epileptic labor was doubled.

The Craig Colony estate embraces 1,872 acres of land, and its original cost was $115,000. The combined value of things grown and produced on the Colony during the first and second years of its existence makes a sum equal to 35 per cent. of the entire original cost of the property. At that rate the original cost will be reproduced in six years.

During the month of April just passed, out of a daily average of 98 male patients, an average of 75.50 per cent. of them were regularly employed. During the same month, out of a daily average of 70 female patients, an average of 81.50 per cent. of them were regularly employed.

These figures do not include those daily employed in sloyd work

and in the school, nor those under constant treatment in the hospital, which, all told, number about 68. The per diem value of the labor of the men, reckoned on the basis of the value of such labor when bought in the open market, amounted to $32.70. The per diem value of the women's labor, reckoned on the same basis, amounted to $18.75.

So far, from the standpoint of economy, you may be tempted to exclaim, so good; but how about the remedial value of labor for the class you care for?

In our last annual report, issued in October, 1897, twelve cases, or 6 per cent. of the entire number under treatment, were reported as making all possible progress toward recovery; and five of that number have recently been discharged recovered.

A cure of 6 per cent. is what is reported from the German Colony at Bielefeld, an institution a third of a century old, and caring for a favorable class of cases out of which to induce recoveries.

Morally, physically, and ethically, the patients at the Craig Colony have improved to a remarkable degree. When received, they are in a condition, through long neglect, to improve. They are removed by environment from indulgences in pernicious practices. They are taught the habits and principles of self-respect.

All the forces of right living embodied in and engendered by school training, by industrial development and education on the farm, in the garden, in the shoe-shop, the upholstering-shop, the carpenter-shop, the brick-yard, the sloyd-room, the machine shop, the tailor-shop, in the military drill, on the athletic field, in the kitchen, in the laundry, in the sewing, cutting, and mending rooms, at basket-making, in clay modelling, in singing, music, and dancing, and in roaming the woods and fields in company with some one to instruct them in the mysterious delights of Nature in the form of birds, flowers, fruits, and insects,— these, in proper combination and under proper supervision, are the factors and influences that make up the remedial, ethical, and economic treatment of the defective and dependent classes.

XI.

Medical Charities.

USES AND ABUSES OF MEDICAL CHARITIES.

BY STEPHEN SMITH, M.D., NEW YORK.

A "medical charity" is hereby defined, for the purpose of this discussion, to be an institution devoted to the gratuitous medical relief of the sick poor who are living on the border line of self-support and pauperism. The object of the medical charity is to provide such persons with gratuitous relief during the stress and strain of sickness, and restore them to a condition of self-support. This definition excludes the various institutions devoted to the care and treatment of persons unable to maintain themselves, or, in other words, of paupers.

Medical charities of the kind under discussion may be classified as: (1) "hospitals," which receive the sick into the institution and treat them away from home, called "in-treatment"; and (2) "dispensaries," which the sick visit for advice and medicine, and return to their homes, called "out-treatment."

Hospitals and dispensaries in some form have existed from the earliest period of recorded history. In the form in which we are to study them,— as medical charities,— they are the growth of the last and of the present century. Our hospital and dispensary systems of giving gratuitous medical relief to the sick poor were derived from England. All of the hospitals of London were founded as medical charities, designed expressly for the relief of the sick poor who were unable to employ a physician, and incur the necessary expenses attendant upon sickness in their homes. The dispensary is simply an outgrowth of the hospital system in its aims and purposes. It was originally designed to supplement the work of the hospital. The first dispensary was organized in London in 1770. The hospi-

tals at that time were overcrowded with the sick poor; and, to meet the pressing wants of this class, the managers of St. Bartholomew's Hospital established a department where the applicants for medical relief who were not so ill as to be obliged to remain in bed could receive advice and medicines, and then return home. This branch of the hospital service was called the "outdoor department," or the "out-treatment," in contra-distinction to the "indoor department," or "in-treatment," of the hospital proper. It was also known as "the dispensary," and received the title of "The Royal General Dispensary." This method of meeting the wants of the sick poor became very popular, and dispensaries rapidly increased in England. The colonies followed the example of the mother country. In 1765 the first hospital was established in this country at Philadelphia, and in 1770 the New York Hospital was incorporated in this city, both institutions having the same foundations as the English hospitals; namely, the treatment of the sick poor. In 1786 appeared the first dispensary, also at Philadelphia; and in 1791 was established the New York Dispensary. These institutions had their origin in the medical profession, which has always given its services freely to the care and treatment of the sick poor.

During the early part of the present century the hospitals and dispensaries of both England and the United States confined their operations to the original objects for which they were created; namely, the treatment of the sick poor. Their increase was very gradual, and for the most part in proportion to the increase and wants of the class for which they were created. During the last half of the century, however, there has been an enormous increase of these institutions, and out of all proportion to the wants of the really destitute sick.

The causes which have led to the great increase of medical charities in these latter days are numerous. First, and perhaps most important, is the predominant charitable feeling induced by Christian civilization. In every community where the religious sentiment has the largest influence upon the public conscience, these institutions are most numerous and the best sustained. Second may be noticed the modern uses of these charities for medical education by the schools of medicine. A quarter of a century ago the relations of the medical colleges and these charities had no importance or significance. But a remarkable change has taken place; and now no

medical school is regarded as fully equipped for its work that has not its hospital or dispensary, or both. Third may be mentioned the vast increase of hospitals and dispensaries for the treatment of special forms of disease. This is due to the modern tendency to specialism in the practice of medicine. Those who cultivate and practise in the narrow and limited field which a single disease affords do not find in the general hospital or dispensary sufficient opportunities for the observation and study of the disease to which they are devoting themselves, and, consequently, they establish a hospital or dispensary devoted to the treatment of that one disease, and advertise free advice and medicines to all who apply. Fourth in the order of incentives for the establishment of hospitals and dispensaries is the desire of religious bodies to employ them as the means of improving the moral and spiritual condition of the sick poor.

The necessary result of the organization of medical charities from other motives than those which originally inspired the founders of our first hospitals and dispensaries — namely, to relieve the poor of the pauperizing effects of disease — has been the more or less indiscriminate treatment of all who apply for medical relief. From this perversion of their true objects have sprung most of the alleged abuses of their management. These abuses have long agitated the medical profession and the workers in charities in England; and this agitation is at present in an acute stage, and has led to an investigation by a royal commission. It is within a comparatively limited period that the evils of indiscriminate gratuitous medical relief have attracted much attention in this country. But their rapid increase during the last score of years and the large and still larger percentage of the population which resort to them have recently excited professional and public interest. Of late the question of the proper measures of relief from evils which they are alleged to create has become predominant in several States.

These evils or abuses of medical charities are chiefly due to indiscriminate almsgiving. It is the contention of those having the largest practical experience that gratuitous medical relief to the sick poor, unless in urgent cases, and to the partially disabled, tends to undermine the independence of the poor, and that a large proportion of our pauperism notoriously originates in relief granted in sickness (Lubbock). Many English writers, who have been long familiar with

the operations of the poor laws of that country, maintain that gratuitous medical relief "is the inlet through which the habit of pauperism first creeps into the poor man's house: it is the ready introduction to permanent pauperism and deception." Langley, a poor law administrator, remarks, "It is a matter of general experience in poor law administration that the receipt of medical relief is most frequently the beginning of pauperism." Dr. Aschrott, long familiar with the operations of the poor law, states, "Those who have once accepted this kind of relief [medical] often lose the sense of responsibility and independence, and do not emerge again from the ranks of pauperism." Rev. Mr. Ede, also connected with this service, writes, "There is ample evidence to show that, when medical relief is given on easy terms, such relief leads on to further applications to the guardians, and to habitual pauperism." Another noticeable fact is their multiplication far beyond the demands of the really dependent classes. For example, during the first half-century the dispensaries of New York City treated about 16 per cent. of the population; but now they are treating upward of 50 per cent. The hospitals have increased in nearly the same proportion in New York, as appears from the fact that there are upward of 1,200 vacant beds constantly to be found in them; and 5,000 vacant beds exist in institutions for children.

In the mad race to organize new medical charities the necessity for that large and expensive equipment of hospitals which modern science requires for the proper treatment of the sick is too often neglected or entirely ignored. There are new hospitals on every hand, which in their structure and appointments for medical and surgical treatment are fair representatives of similar institutions of half a century ago.

The want of an adequate number of suitable rooms for the proper conduct of their business is a most urgent and lamentable necessity in most of the dispensaries. In many there is but one waiting-room for both sexes and for patients of all ages. As the applicants are often compelled to wait for hours for the arrival of the physician and are under no special care by an attendant, petty thefts, immoral acts, and sometimes violence occur. In other dispensaries both sexes are frequently examined in the same room, especially in surgical cases, and dressings applied. The conveniences for treating diseases of women are often of the rudest and most worthless character, and in but few dispensaries are there adequately lighted rooms for this ser-

vice. The same remark is true of the treatment of other special diseases.

In the out-department of hospitals and in dispensaries it is no uncommon occurrence to find among the waiting crowd infants suffering from diphtheria, children in the early stages of scarlet fever or measles, and adults in the later stages of consumption. Here this motley gathering of persons, suffering from all forms of contagious and infections diseases, mingle together for hours without any attempt at separation or isolation of classes or cases. When the hours are over, there is no adequate airing and ventilation of rooms; and the following day a new and susceptible crowd of people fill the rooms again from morning to night. It is quite impossible to devise a more ingenious method of propagating all our domestic pestilences than that furnished by the dispensaries. There are dispensaries in full operation in tenement houses, in drug stores, and in dilapidated old buildings and shanties. A dispensary that reports treating 48,000 patients annually is conducted in a wooden structure 20 by 12 feet, and 8 feet high. A visitor to that dispensary on a day of average attendance of patients will not be able to enter the building, so great and so persistent is the crowd. There are seats for not more than ten of the fifty or more waiting.

An inspection of existing medical charities proves that in a large number of them the essential features of good management are entirely absent. Some are under private control, and the responsibility for the management rests with a single individual. These institutions are generally deficient in every particular of good government. Even those having boards of management are not always carefully supervised by the managers.

Full and accurate records of the diagnosis and treatment of all cases is an essential feature of every well-managed dispensary; and yet, in no less than 21 dispensaries, in this city no record whatever is kept. In 17 others the records are very brief. Correct records of the receipt and expenditure of funds are perhaps of greater importance, and yet 4 dispensaries keep no financial accounts whatever. In the greater number of dispensaries that report keeping records an examination shows them worthless for any practical purpose.

An examination of applications to determine whether they are of the poor and needy class, entitled to gratuitous treatment, is very imperfectly practised in most of the dispensaries. In many the only

method pursued is to ask some very pertinent questions about income and cost of living of each patient, the purpose of which they immediately apprehend and for the most part answer accordingly. A large number of institutions make return that the method of determining the ability of the patient to pay is by their personal appearance. 5 dispensaries frankly admit that no question is asked, and no attempt is made to discover the applicant's worthiness. Furthermore the returns show that in 7 dispensaries patients who are able to pay are charged 10 or more cents; 3 charge for surgical dressings, 2 charge for medicine and dressing, 29 charge from 1 to 50 cents for medicines, 3 allow patients to make voluntary payments, and 15 receive no money for medicines. From this statement it is apparent that the modern dispensary is by no means a pure charity, but is a method of treating the sick poor on such terms as the latter may be able to meet. Another noticeable fact is the report that in twelve dispensaries the physicians are allowed to treat cases privately, and charge such fees as they may fix. Such dispensaries naturally tend to encourage the attendance of well-to-do patients in the interest of the attending physicians. It must follow that the destitute sick will not be as welcome in these institutions, and are liable to be discriminated against both in their reception and treatment.

The drug department and its management is an important part of a dispensary. On its proper equipment depends the success of the treatment of patients. The necessity of having a thoroughly qualified druggist in a dispensary which has under its treatment annually 55,000 patients is obvious. While most of the old dispensaries exercise proper care in the selection of their dispensers, many of the new dispensaries have as druggists men whose only qualification is that they have served a term, long or short, in a drug store. In one dispensary, which treats 52,000 patients annually, and issues prescriptions for the same period, there were three persons acting as druggists, not one of whom was a graduate of a college of pharmacy. In another dispensary, reporting 12,000 patients treated in the year 1895, and prescriptions prepared, the druggist, a man of very limited education, had only served in a subordinate capacity in a drug department of a hospital.

These instances of the employment of incompetent druggists in dispensaries are but examples of the very low order of apothecaries

liable to be selected for the responsible duty of preparing the medicines for the sick poor. Not only is there great danger from the improper administration of drugs put up by an uneducated and inexperienced druggist, but, being intrusted with the purchase of the drugs of the institution, he is very likely to select an inferior class of goods. An examination of the drugs in several dispensaries proves that in their selection regard is had rather to prices than to the quality of the articles. Few of the more precise and efficient modern remedies were found on the shelves. It follows that an incompetent druggist will keep his drugs in an imperfect and slovenly manner, as is apparent in many dispensaries. Drugs were exposed improperly to the light, air, and heat, and were accumulating dust until most of them might lose what little virtue they may have had originally. The apothecary's room is too often offensive with the odors of exposed drugs, and repulsively filthy from the slops and litter of wasted material. That many inferior drug houses depend upon the incompetent and poorly paid druggists of dispensaries to "work off their stocks of damaged and worthless goods" is attested by competent pharmacists of dispensaries.

It has long been an opinion current in the medical profession that the treatment of patients is very inefficient in the dispensaries. This fact is better known to physicians connected with the hospitals, where the results of treatment come under their special notice through the patients who come from the latter to the former. It is not surprising that even the best physician connected with a dispensary fails so frequently in his diagnosis, if we note the conditions under which he performs his duties. He is rarely so secluded that he can give his undivided attention to the case under examination. When he finds twenty to fifty impatient persons waiting his coming, whatever may be his expertness in the despatch of business, he has no thought of doing justice to this crowd of poor people thronging the entrance of his consulting-room; and hence he becomes accustomed to pass them rapidly in review, giving to each a prescription for some harmless mixture which will satisfy them for the time being that they are under treatment. If we could learn the history of each individual patient, we should be surprised at the injustice that has been done these sick poor. Many would be found who have slight affections that will become chronic, others have chronic diseases that are curable by proper remedies or methods of living, and not a few

have incipient symptoms of diseases that are curable only at an early stage. All have been massed together and put on nearly the same treatment.

There are many other defects in our medical charities, but it is not necessary to enumerate them at this time. The question before the Conference is, "How can the faults in the management of medical charities be most efficiently corrected?" Or, in other words, "By what means can medical charities be required to perform their proper functions of giving gratuitous medical relief to the sick poor in a manner best adapted to improve the physical and moral conditions of the latter?"

It is apparent along what lines reforms are required. *First*, and most important, is a system of investigation and registration of applicants which will rigidly exclude from these charities improper persons. *Second*, the increase of medical charities should be in proportion to the needs of the poor. *Third*, the buildings should be so adapted to the duties to be performed that patients can receive the highest grade of care. *Finally*, these charities should be furnished, equipped, and managed so that the medical and surgical treatment of the sick shall meet the requirements of modern science.

The measures best adapted to secure these reforms is now the subject of much thought and discussion. At the outset it may be stated that there is no apparent inherent corrective force in the present system of organized medical charities. It is stated, and with great plausibility, that the medical profession is itself responsible for all the faults in the management of these institutions. To a very large extent this is true. Medical men have generally created them, and with an immense sacrifice of time and money have sustained them. But there is no inhibitory power in that profession which has proved adequate thus far to correct the evil.

There have been efforts to organize associations of managers of medical charities for the purpose of adopting and enforcing rules governing the management of these institutions. But thus far nothing useful has been accomplished.

Finally, resort has been had to legislatures to secure the enactment of measures of reform, but without any practical results.

With this general presentation of the subject the committee submits the several questions at issue to the deliberate consideration of the Conference.

THE USE AND ABUSE OF MEDICAL CHARITIES IN THEIR RELATION TO MEDICAL EDUCATION.

BY AUSTIN FLINT, M.D., LL.D.,

PROFESSOR OF PHYSIOLOGY, CORNELL UNIVERSITY MEDICAL COLLEGE.

It would be difficult to exaggerate the importance of medical science in its practical applications to the conditions which contribute to the happiness and prosperity of civilized peoples. Using the term "medical science" in its widest sense, so as to include the physiology and pathology of the mind as well as of the body, as a basis for the intelligent treatment of diseases and injuries and mental disturbances, and, most important of all, the prevention of disease, is there any individual or community or nation that does not profit directly or indirectly by advances in medical knowledge? The benefits derived from such advances are not confined to any one people or limited by time or place. It is probable that every person here present enjoys the benefit of practical immunity from small-pox; and for all time and in all parts of the civilized world the blessing of exemption from this terrible scourge, given to us a little more than a century ago, will be felt.

The same may be said of the abolition of the agony and horrors of severe surgical operations by the discovery of artificial anæsthesia, which is within the experience of many surgeons now living. If it should seem visionary now, it will not appear extravagant in the near future if one should predict the practical extinction of many infectious diseases, such as consumption, diphtheria, typhoid fever, yellow fever and scarlet fever. A hundred years ago any one predicting that small-pox would ever be so far conquered as to become a rare disease due to neglect of a simple precaution would have been regarded as mentally unsound; and yet, at the Jenner Centenary, held in Berlin in 1874, Virchow stated "that all peoples that had not been reached by vaccination or that had not accepted it had disappeared from the face of the earth, destroyed by small-pox." Jenner's discovery was based upon the simple observation that those who had contracted cow-pox were protected against small-pox. It was a discovery

based on observation and experiment only, involving no idea of the mechanism by which immunity was secured. Pathogenic micro-organisms were then unknown; and nearly a century elapsed before apparatus and methods were devised by means of which these organisms could be seen and studied. With modern microscopes and staining processes the mechanism of the production of many infectious diseases has been ascertained, the reason why these diseases are self-limited is understood and we are at the threshold of a thorough comprehension of immunity. Is it extravagant now to predict that many of these diseases will eventually disappear from the face of the earth?

The extension of the benefits of advanced medical science depends largely upon thorough medical education; and there is no more important factor in advanced medical education than the study of actual disease by the examples afforded by medical charities. Medical charities may be and are abused, as every form of charity involving relief of want or suffering may be and is abused. It may be said, however, that the more unworthy the recipient, the greater the charity,— but with certain limitations. Still, charity that is not needed is not charity, but is simply imposition and fraud. The impostor receives, makes no return, and often he deprives others of much-needed relief. This important side of medical charities will be discussed by others. In my opinion, the only question involved is the moral question; and the bearing of the abuse of charities upon the income of the physician is secondary. While the physician is justly entitled to proper remuneration for his labor, the profession of medicine is essentially unmercenary. The highest aim, indeed, of the physician is the prevention of disease, which necessarily reduces his income.

In the relations of medical charities to medical education the recipient of charity always makes more or less return. At the present day there are few pauper hospitals or dispensaries that do not contribute something to medical education. Attending physicians and surgeons to hospitals and dispensaries receive no pecuniary compensation. Their reward is the knowledge and experience they acquire for themselves and opportunities for teaching medicine. Within my own experience of forty years as a medical teacher, the uses of medical charities in medical education have been immensely extended. Forty years ago many physicians were educated in the schools and received their diplomas without having ever seen a case of disease or injury except in the most incidental way. Many medical schools

had no clinics as a part of their required curriculum. Now it is impossible for a medical school without some clinical opportunities to exist.

I cannot illustrate the use of medical charities in their relation to medical education better than by giving a brief sketch of the practical work required of a medical student of to-day, all of which practical work is dependent upon medical charities.

A medical student, during at least the last two years of his course of instruction, is required to attend lectures on actual cases of disease or injury, witnessing surgical operations. In addition, he is taken into the wards of a hospital and instructed in diagnosis, treatment and the application of surgical dressings. He is practically instructed in the modern aseptic and antiseptic surgical technique. He is required to attend, under supervision, at least six cases of labor. If a student should get the full benefit of this practical course, he brings to his aid a certain experience even in his first case in private practice, he is able to avoid infection in his first surgical operation, and in his labor cases the element of danger is reduced to the minimum. The existence of medical charities alone renders this education possible.

Patients contributing thus to medical education receive, from their point of view, much more than they give. With all due respect for older members of the profession who have been for years engrossed in private practice and are almost of necessity unfamiliar with recent advances in pathology and therapeutics, it is not too much to say that their methods do not always give patients the benefit of modern science, although their *clientèle* may be among those amply able to secure the best medical attendance. On the other hand, the inmates of a pauper hospital have their cases investigated in the light of medical science as it is to-day, and are treated *secundum artem*. Of necessity this is so. A clinical teacher cannot sustain his position in a hospital unless he is fully abreast of the present state of medical science, which reduces accidents and errors in the practice of medicine, surgery, and obstetrics to the minimum. In the great pauper hospital of the city of New York, the world-renowned Bellevue, for many years practical politics has stopped short at the medical management. With an experience and observation of this institution extending over nearly forty years, I can not call to mind a medical or surgical requisition that has been dishonored or a well-founded

complaint of lack of care and attention to patients, even when requisitions called for supplies, remedies, instruments or apparatus of the most expensive kind. The same may be said of nearly every hospital and dispensary, public or private, in the large cities of the United States.

The great hospitals are the practical schools for the modern "trained nurse." The internes are carefully selected by competitive examination, and they represent the flower of the younger members of the profession. When we bring these facts to mind, and remember, also, that even the smallest surgical operation, performed with proper precautions, involves a considerable expenditure for dressings, etc., which many in moderate circumstances are unable to buy, and which the practitioner whom they can afford to employ is unable to furnish, can we wonder that many who can pay small fees only, and must receive corresponding service, seek free treatment, which is of the highest grade? The statistics of the society of the Lying-in Hospital, which treats patients of the poorest class, in their filthy and squalid homes, under the most disadvantageous surroundings, show a mortality that is almost *nil*. Few physicians in private practice can show such a record. The actual expense of treatment in such cases, to say nothing of fees, is more than many of the working classes are able to pay.

I say nothing of abuse of medical charities in their relation to medical education, for I fail to see what and where the abuses are, if, indeed, they exist; and, looking at medical charities solely in their relations to medical education, their use and importance can hardly be overestimated. Medical charities are the foundation of medical education; and, while much is given in charity, much is received in return. There are heroes of war, who give up their lives on the field of battle for country and for principle, and medical heroes of peace, who brave the dangers and horrors of pestilence to save life; but the homeless, friendless, degraded and possibly criminal sick poor in the wards of a charity hospital, receiving aid and comfort in their extremity and contributing each one his modest share to the advancement of medical science, render even greater service to humanity. Whether a patient is restored to health and to his measure of happiness or succumbs to the inevitable, he does something to educate men for the exercise of the most beneficent and disinterested of professions; and this is the use of medical charities in their relation to medical education.

MEDICAL CHARITIES IN RELATION TO RELIGIOUS SOCIETIES.

BY THE REV. DAVID H. GREER, D.D.

The subject which has been assigned to me is somewhat unique, and different from those which have been already considered. It is the subject of medical charity in connection with religion; and that is a phase of the subject which has not been discussed, and which perhaps is not usually discussed in the consideration of the subject itself. And yet without such discussion the consideration is incomplete; for religion is the rock whence charity has been hewn, medical charity and other the fountain or the source from which it has been derived. Charity is the offspring of religion, and of the Christian religion in particular. For the Christian religion taught, with strong stress and emphasis, the sacredness of human life, its transcendent worth and value, no matter how degraded or crippled or broken or weak or apparently unimportant the pauper, the slave, the child, the suffering, and the sick; and from that vivid sense of the value of human life we would naturally expect a charitable disposition to come to minister to human life, not only in its spiritual needs, but in its physical needs as well. And so, in fact, it did come. Charity is the offspring, and the legitimate offspring, of Christianity. That is not a theological statement, open to question: it is an historical statement, beyond question,—a statement of fact which every historical student knows and is familiar with. For while it is true, as Mr. Lecky tells us, that a few pagan examples of charity have indeed descended to us, it is also true that they are exceptional and few, and that, when Christianity appeared, charity became not the exception, but the rule, and was regarded, at least by the Christian world, as a "rudimentary virtue," to be generally exercised, as it was exercised and practised.

It was a Christian woman who established the first public hospital in the world. It was a Christian bishop who caused to be erected the first asylum for lepers in the world. It was a Christian monk who caused to be erected the first refuge for the blind. It was a Christian merchant who caused to be erected the first free dispen-

sary. It was the Christian Council of Nicæa that caused to be erected, or ordered to be erected, in every Christian city a public institution for the benefit of the poor.

The motive which inspired these and many other similar deeds and works was not always or wholly, as is sometimes alleged, the hope of winning another world and securing safety there by some largess and bountiful gift in this world, cleansing from all iniquities and all defilements here. That may have entered into the motive, and doubtless did a little. But, then, things are often mixed in this world,— motives as well as other things; and even pills and drugs administered by some of you gentlemen are not always wholly medicinal,— that is, medicinal throughout,— but are tinctured and coated with a little unmedicinal sweetness, just to make them palatable and more easy to take. So sometimes are motives, even the most disinterested, mixed with a little personal interestedness, just to make them more potential and easy to act. And the motive which inspired charitable ministration to human life in the early Christian world, while doubtless mixed up with a little *post-mortem* self-interestedness, making it more efficacious and active, was also in part, and in the main part, the impulse and the desire to minister to human life, its hurts, its wounds, its distresses, just for the sake of ministering to those distresses and those hurts, and helping and relieving that suffering human life which, in the light of Christian teaching, had been shown to be of such transcendent worth.

So it came to pass that charity at the first was associated with religion. So has it been ever since associated with religion, not only as its offspring, but also as its handmaid. And so has religion done its proper work in the world, its moral and spiritual work, contributing to righteousness by contributing to healthfulness, to holiness by wholeness, not only giving a tract, but also giving a treatment, and helping and healing the soul by helping and healing the body, making one well at times by making the other well. And that is what now, as never before in their history, all religious societies and Christian churches are doing. And just because they realize now as never before how close the connection is between the physical and the spiritual, the material and the moral, they are not only saying to the suffering and the sick, "Go and sin no more," but, in order that they may go and sin no more, "Take up your bed, and walk."

And not only for the sake of religion and its work in the world

must medical charity, like other charity, be associated with it, but also for the sake of the charity and *its* work in the world. For, while the immediate aim of charity, and medical charity in particular, is to give to human life physical relief, it did so in the first place, and it does so now, even when it is not conscious of it; yet it does so because religion has shown that human life to be, even in its feeblest and most abortive form, of such important value and such transcendent worth. Let that sense of the worth and value of human life which religion gave and gives be separated from charity, and there will be in time no charity — the stream run out and dry — to minister to human life. That, however, has never been the case in Christendom, and never will be the case. Charity and religion are joined together in philosophy and in fact, each helping the other, and each enabling the other to do, in the most efficient way, its true and proper work.

But I must not forget that I am expected to say something about the abuse of charity in connection with religion. Well, it has been abused, very much abused. Shortly after the appearance of Christianity in the world the charity of the Christian Church became, as Mr. Lecky says again, so extensive and excessive that it made very many impostors; and, quoting from one of the writers of that period, he tells the story of a certain Jew who, pretending to be a convert to Christianity, had been repeatedly baptized in different Christian sects, and who had amassed a considerable fortune by the various charitable gifts held out as inducements to him, and which he had thus obtained. It reminds us of the stories told, and which no doubt are true,— some of them have been verified,— of certain well-to-do, if not wealthy, persons, who, leaving their carriages and coachmen at some convenient corner, have walked up to dispensary doors, and become temporarily converted to poverty for the sake of a free treatment there from some celebrated physician. Or of those other stories told, which again some of us have verified, of the way in which some persons have been temporarily converted to religion for the sake of some material aid, in the shape of the free lodging or the free supper, which they hoped thereby to secure.

Something like this, I presume, will always be the case as long ae human nature is what it is. Even in the time of the Founder of the Christian religion himself, we read of many persons who were drawn and attracted to him and followed him about for the sake of the

loaves and fishes. And yet loaves and fishes, although at times unworthily bestowed and obtained, are good things. So is charity, although at times unworthily obtained, a good thing. So is medical charity a good thing; and, in pulling up the tares, let us be careful not to pull up the wheat, although in this case I do not think we are called upon to let both grow together any more than is absolutely necessary or beyond what we can prevent.

And perhaps you will let me tell you here, perhaps I am expected to tell you, how we try to prevent it, and do prevent it, in St. Bartholomew's Clinic, with which I am connected. We treat there in the course of the year between five and six thousand new cases, and every one of those cases is thoroughly investigated. If it is an urgent case, calling for immediate treatment, and which would result in serious hurt or injury if not immediately treated, such treatment is given; but it is not given again, or a second time, until investigation is made. How is it made?

Two persons are employed who devote their whole time, every day in the week except Sunday, to such investigation. They are persons of wisdom and tact, who have learned by experience, the only way in which one can learn, how to discriminate between those who are able to pay a physician's fee and those who are not able. They make their reports every morning to the superintendent of the clinic, and every week to me; and so generally has it become known that such careful investigation is made at St. Bartholomew's Clinic that many of those who formerly applied to us for treatment do not now apply. In the month of March, for instance, 558 persons came to us for treatment; and out of that number, after a thorough investigation, two were found unworthy. In the succeeding month of April 449 persons came to us for treatment, and three were found unworthy. This may be a primitive and "rule-of-thumb" method, and not capable of adoption by those larger institutions which have no church connection, and where the number of cases is so great that they cannot be personally investigated. It is not of them, however, that I have been asked to speak; and it might be adopted in those smaller institutions that are associated with religious societies and churches, of which I have been asked to speak, and where, if adopted, both religion and charity would find their fit and proper use, and neither would be abused. Then would be seen again in the latest Christianity the same evidential sign which in the earliest appeared,

that "the blind receive their sight, the lame walk, the lepers are cleansed, the deaf hear," and that thus, through charity, and through medical charity, "the poor have the gospel preached to them."

MEDICAL CHARITY IN NEW YORK.

SKETCH OF AN ATTEMPT TO RESTRICT ABUSE IN MEDICAL CHARITY.

BY FREDERICK HOLME WIGGIN, M.D.,

VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION.

For many years past physicians whose fortune it has been to reside in large cities, both in this country and abroad, as well as a few laymen whose attention has been called in one way or another to the conduct of medical charities, have realized in a general way that there was a serious and rapidly growing abuse of the facilities afforded by the charitably inclined for the purpose of relieving the sick poor. Attention was called from time to time to this unfortunate condition of affairs by the reports of investigators; but in this locality the gravity of the situation was not fully realized until about eighteen months ago, when, owing to the efforts of Dr. Stephen Smith, lately president of the Department of Public Charities of this city and a member of the New York State Board of Charities, and Dr. Landon Carter Gray, then president of the New York County Medical Society, the actual condition of the local medical charities was specifically set forth. It was shown that the ratio of those applying for medical aid had risen from 16 per cent. in 1860 to about 49 per cent. in 1895.

On this showing a special committee was appointed by the president of the Medical Society of the County of New York for the purpose of investigating the question of the abuse, and, if possible, to suggest a remedy. The gentlemen who composed the committee were not only representative of the general medical profession of this city, but also of all the larger teaching faculties. Numerous meetings

of the committee were held for the purpose of carefully considering the question at issue. The existence of the abuse of medical charity in connection with the dispensary work of this city was easily proven, and the committee soon devoted all of its attention to seeking out a remedy. Further study seemed to indicate that one of the serious causes of the evil was a lack of proper methods of investigating the financial condition of those applying for outdoor medical relief. The Charity Organization Society was communicated with by the committee on this subject; and a reply was received from its president that a general investigation and cataloguing of all applicants for outdoor medical relief were entirely practicable, and that the society would undertake such systematic investigation, provided the expense, which was estimated at $25,000 for the first year, could be assured it. It was also stated that the expense for subsequent years would probably not exceed $5,000.

In the opinion of the committee, another important factor in the production of the dispensary abuse was the system of charging small fees for medicines and apparatus. This led many people to feel that they were paying their way, and had a right to apply for treatment regardless of their financial condition. As the object of dispensaries is to relieve the sick poor, and not the furnishing of medical advice and treatment at "bargain-counter prices," it seemed essential for the control of the evil that this system should be abolished. Another point which seemed important to the committee was that it should be made a misdemeanor, punishable by a moderate fine, for a person to obtain medical or surgical advice or treatment, medicine or apparatus, from a dispensary by reason of false representations as to financial condition; and, furthermore, it seemed necessary that the attention of the public should be called to the fact that the dispensary was, as has already been stated, a place for the relief of the sick poor only by posting in the waiting-rooms of the dispensaries a placard stating this fact.

These points having been determined to be the essential factors in any general plan for the control of the abuse of medical charity, it was decided to communicate with the managers of all the dispensaries in this city, asking them the following questions: (1) Whether the governing board of the dispensary approved of the movement to abolish the abuse of medical charity; (2) Whether the governing board would co-operate with the committee of the Medical Society

of the County of New York in the endeavor to dispense free medical treatment only to those applicants who are deserving and unable to pay a physician; and (3) whether or not the governing board would agree to place a placard in a conspicuous place in the dispensary, calling attention to the fact that the dispensary was intended only for the treatment of the sick poor, and that on and after a certain date every person applying for free medical treatment would be investigated for the purpose of determining whether or not the applicant was deserving of free medical service. To this was added a proviso that such an agreement on the part of the dispensary to the plan of the committee should not be considered as binding the dispensary to make such investigation at its own expense. Replies to these questions were received from seventy-six of the dispensaries; and, while many of the smaller dispensaries replied in the affirmative, the more important ones either replied affirmatively only on the condition that all the dispensaries should agree to act or they declined to have anything to do with the matter. It soon became apparent that it would be impossible to get the managers of all the dispensaries in this city to voluntarily agree to any general plan.

Referring to this matter, a report of the State Board of Charities, made to the legislature Jan. 24, 1898, p. 45, says, "It is practically agreed among those versed in the true principles of philanthropy that beneficence is lacking in any form of charitable assistance which works material injustice to the interests of those who do not seek charity, or which is not so safeguarded as to prevent the continued dispensation of relief to those who do not require aid. Most of the dispensaries violate both of these principles; and their managers apparently are not, and have never been, in a temper to come to some mutual understanding whereby better conditions shall prevail. In a large degree, and for various reasons, they have become competitors for business to such an extent that it is probable that nearly one-half of the inhabitants of New York are now receiving practically free medical treatment."

Shortly after the committee had reached this conclusion, it was found that a committee had been appointed by the New York County Medical Association, having the same objects in view. A joint committee was formed from sub-committees of these two committees. About this time it came to the knowledge of the joint committee that an organization, known as the "New York Society for the Advance-

ment of the Practice of Medicine" had been formed, and had caused to be introduced into the legislature of the State the following bill: —

AN ACT

RELATING TO DISPENSARIES IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK, DEFINING THE SAME AND PROVIDING FOR THE REGULATION AND MANAGEMENT THEREOF; PROHIBITING THE ESTABLISHMENT THEREOF IN CERTAIN PLACES; PROVIDING FOR A COMMISSION TO SUPERVISE THE SAME; ALSO, PROVIDING FOR THE PAYMENT FOR SERVICE RENDERED BY PHYSICIANS AND SURGEONS AND THE COLLECTION THEREOF, AND PROVIDING FOR A PUNISHMENT FOR A VIOLATION OF THE PROVISIONS OF THIS ACT.

The people of the State of New York, represented in the Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows: —

SECTION I. A "Dispensary" is hereby defined to be a place, established by any person, persons, or corporation, for the practice of medicine and surgery, and to give medical and surgical aid or treatment gratuitously to poor persons who are unable to pay therefor.

SECT. II. No persons shall apply for such treatment in any dispensary, nor shall any person, persons, or corporation conducting such dispensary give treatment or medical aid to any person, unless such person so applying for such treatment shall be a poor person and unable to pay for medical treatment; and all persons who are entitled to be so treated shall be treated by such dispensary free from charge for services so rendered, and shall be furnished with the necessary medicines or appliances required by such treatment.

SECT. III. In no case shall any person, persons, or corporation conducting such dispensary directly or indirectly receive any pay or compensation whatever for the treatment of any such persons entitled to be so treated, nor be entitled to or receive any pay or compensation for the medicines or appliances so furnished; and no person who is not a poor person shall be so treated in such dispensary except in cases of emergency.

SECT. IV. No dispensary shall be carried on or conducted in any place commonly known as a drug store or a place for the sale of drugs or medicines, nor shall the same be carried on in any place commonly known or defined by law or by the rules and regulations or any health board of health department as a "Tenement House."

SECT. V. All persons desiring to avail themselves of the right to be so treated in any such dispensary shall produce to the person, persons, or corporation so carrying on said dispensary a certificate in writing from the owner or owners of the premises wherein said person resides, or from the police captain or person in charge of the police of the district or precinct in which he or she resides, or from the aldermen of the district, or from any charity organization, that the said applicant is a poor person, unable to pay for medical treatment or medicines; and such writing shall be in the form prescribed by such dispensary, and be of no force and effect after the expiration of thirty days from the date thereof.

SECT. VI. Any person who shall apply to such dispensary to be treated who is not a poor person, or shall obtain treatment or medical aid at such dispensary when he or she shall not be entitled thereto under the provisions of this act, the person so applying or so receiving such treatment or medical aid, and any person or persons who shall aid such person so applying to be treated in such dispensary, or who shall sign such certificate, knowing that such person so applying to be treated is not a poor person, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor.

SECT. VII. Power and authority is hereby conferred upon the societies known and designated as follows,— namely, the New York County Medical Society, the New York Homœopathic County Medical Society, New York Eclectic County Medical Society, New York County Medical Association, the New York Medical Society for the Advancement of Practice of Medicine, the Harlem Medical Society, the Eastern Medical Society, the German Medical Society of the City of New York, and the United Charities of the City of New York,— under the certificate of appointment signed by its president and secretary and attested to by its corporate seal, to nominate and appoint one person who with the persons to be selected by all of said societies shall compose a board to be known as the "Medical Board for the Supervision of Dispensaries within the City of New York"; and such board shall have power to make such rules, regulations, and by-laws for its organization, government, and management, to adopt such rules and regulations with reference to the establishment, management, mode, and manner of carrying on and conducting such dispensary and provide for the supervision thereof, and to adopt such rules and regulations with regard thereto as, in the judgment of said board, may be necessary for carrying out and giving force and effect to the provisions of this act, and upon the adoption thereof to cause the same to be distributed among such dispensaries; and all such dispensaries now in existence or hereafter to be established shall be subject to such rules, regulations, and by-laws, and subject to the supervision of the said board. Any vacancy in said board shall be filled by an appointment by the society to which the member belongs whose death, resignation, or inability to act created the vacancy.

SECT. VIII. Any person or persons or corporation so conducting or carrying on a dispensary, and violating any rules, regulations, and by-laws so made by said board after notice of the adoption thereof, and who shall fail to comply with any of such rules, regulations, and by-laws so adopted by said board, may be prosecuted by said board, or any officer thereof, and, upon conviction thereof, be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be punished by a fine of not less than fifty dollars or more than two hundred and fifty dollars or by imprisonment of not less than one month or more than six months, or both such fine and imprisonment, for the first offence, and six months' imprisonment for each subsequent offence.

SECT. IX. The husband and wife shall be jointly and severally liable to pay for professional services of a physician rendered to them, or either of them, or any member of their family; and the joint or several property of the husband and wife shall be liable to levy and sale under an execution upon such judgment, except such property as may by law be exempt from levy and sale under an execution.

SECT. X. This act shall take effect immediately.

This bill proved, on examination, to embody certain reforms in the management of the dispensaries of this city; but, in the opinion of the representatives of the County Society and County Association, it was not only too radical in character, but contained many objectionable features. As the adjournment of the legislature was close at hand, it was thought best not to oppose this bill and introduce a new one, but rather to secure the co-operation of its proposers with the committees referred to. After considerable argument they agreed to this proposition, and consented to the substitution of the following bill, which had been prepared: —

AN ACT

Relating to and defining Dispensaries, requiring them to be incorporated or licensed, forbidding their Establishment in a "Drug Store" or a "Tenement House," providing that the word "Dispensary" shall only be used in Connection with an Incorporated or Licensed Dispensary, that Persons shall not obtain Relief from Dispensaries by False Representations, and that a Violation of this Act shall be a Misdemeanor; also empowering the State Board of Charities to make Rules and Regulations and to annul or suspend Incorporations and to revoke Licenses.

The people of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. By this act a "dispensary" is defined to be any institution, agency, or place, society or association, whose actual or alleged purpose it is to furnish either gratuitously, or at a merely nominal price, to indigent, needy, or other persons not resident therein, medical or surgical relief, advice or treatment, medicine, or orthopædic or other like appliances.

Sect. 2. On or after the first day of October, eighteen hundred and ninety-seven, it shall not be lawful for any one to establish, conduct, or manage at any place in this State a dispensary not duly incorporated as such under the laws of this State, or not connected with another incorporation and licensed by the State Board of Charities.

Sect. 3. In no case shall a dispensary be established, carried on, or conducted in any place in this State commonly known as a "drug store," nor in any place or building in the State defined by law or by an ordinance of a board of health as a "tenement house."

Sect. 4. It shall not be lawful for any person or persons to display the word "dispensary," or to cause the same to be published in any form or in any manner in order to attract any indigent, needy, or other person to any dispensary not duly incorporated or licensed, as provided in section two of this act.

SECT. 5. Any person who shall by means of any wilful false representations on his or her part obtain at any dispensary medical or surgical relief, advice or treatment, medicines, or orthopædic or other appliances, or any person who shall wilfully violate any of the provisions of this act shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be required to pay a fine of not less than fifty nor more than two hundred and fifty dollars.

SECT. 6. The State Board of Charities is hereby empowered to make rules and regulations, and to alter and amend the same when, in its opinion, necessary, in accordance with which indigent, needy, or other persons shall be given medical or surgical relief, advice or treatment, medicines, and orthopædic or other like appliances, by such duly incorporated or licensed dispensaries; and the said board is hereby empowered — a chance for a hearing having been given — to annul the incorporation or suspend the operations or to revoke the license of any dispensary for wilful neglect or failure on the part of its managers, trustees, officers, or employees, to comply with the rules and regulations so established by said board. But nothing in this act contained shall be construed to mean that said board shall have power to determine the particular school of medicine under which the dispensary shall be conducted.

SECT. 7. All acts or parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

SECT. 8. This act shall take effect on the first of October, eighteen hundred and ninety-seven.

This bill was referred to the State Board of Charities by the Senate committee having it in charge, and it received the indorsement of that board. It was then passed unanimously by both Houses of the legislature, but did not become a law on account of the failure of the executive to approve it. In the interval which occurred before the opening of the legislative session of 1898 the question of the effort to limit the abuse of medical charity through appeal to the legislature was indorsed by the following medical societies: the New York State Medical Association, the Medical Society of the County of New York, the New York County Medical Association, the New York Medical League, the New York Society for the Advancement of Practice or Medicine, the Medical Society of the County of Kings, the Kings County Medical Association, the Brooklyn Medical Society, the Brooklyn Medical Association, and the Long Island Medical Society. Representatives of these societies came together, and formed a joint committee, which, as a result of much careful investigation and many consultations, prepared the outline of another bill, which was milder in character, and which seemed to eliminate the features which had been considered objectionable in the previous bill. This outline was submitted to the

State Revision Committee, which is appointed by the governor for the purpose of revising or preparing bills, so that they shall be constitutional and not conflict with existing laws. The following is the text of the bill: —

AN ACT

TO AMEND THE STATE CHARITIES LAW RELATING TO THE LICENSING AND REGULATION OF DISPENSARIES BY THE STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

The people of the State of New York, represented in Senate and assembly, do enact as follows: —

SECTION 1. Article one of chapter five hundred and forty-six of the laws of eighteen hundred and ninety-six, entitled "An act relating to State charities, constituting chapter twenty-six of the general laws," is hereby amended by inserting at the end thereof the following sections: —

SECT. 19. *What is a dispensary?* — For the purposes of this act a dispensary is declared to be any person, corporation, institution, society, association, or agent, whose purpose it is, either independently or in connection with any other purpose, to furnish, at any place or places, to persons non-resident therein, either gratuitously or for a compensation determined without reference to the value of the thing furnished, medical or surgical advice or treatment, medicine or apparatus, provided, however, that the moneys used by and for the purposes of said dispensary shall be derived wholly or in part from trust funds, public moneys, or sources other than the individuals constituting said dispensary and the persons actually engaged in the distribution of charities of said dispensary.

SECT. 20. *Licensing of dispensaries by State Board of Charities.* — A license may be issued by the State Board of Charities to a dispensary, as provided in this section. An application in writing for such license shall be made to such board in the form and manner prescribed by it. There shall be attached to such application a statement, verified by the oath of the applicant, containing such facts as the board may require. If, in the judgment of such board, the statement filed, and other evidence submitted in relation to such application, indicate that the operations of such dispensary will be for the public benefit, a license shall be issued to the dispensary applying therefor. The form of such license shall be prescribed by the board. A dispensary shall not enter upon the execution, or continue the prosecution of its purpose unless licensed by the State Board of Charities, as provided herein.

SECT. 21. *Rules and regulations.* — The State Board of Charities may make rules and regulations, and alter or amend the same, in accordance with which all dispensaries shall furnish and applicants obtain medical or surgical relief, advice or treatment, medicine, or apparatus. But such rules and regulations shall not in any case specify the particular school of medicine in accordance with which a dispensary shall manage or conduct its work, or determine the kind of medical or surgical treatment to be provided by any dispensary.

SECT. 22. *Revocation of licenses.* — The State Board of Charities or any of its members may at any and all times visit and inspect licensed dispensaries. They

may examine all matters in relation to such dispensaries, and ascertain how far they are conducted in compliance with this law and the rules and regulations of the board. After due notice to a dispensary, and opportunity for it to be heard, the board may, if public interest demands, and for just and reasonable cause, revoke a license by an order signed and attested by the president and secretary of the board. Such order shall state the reason for revoking such license, and shall take effect within such time after the service thereof upon the dispensary as the board shall determine.

SECT. 23. *Drug store or tenement house not to be used by dispensary; unlawful display of signs.*— After the taking effect of this act, no dispensary shall make use of any place commonly known as a drug store, or any place or building defined by law or by an ordinance of a board of health as a tenement house; nor after such time shall any person, corporation, institution, society, association, or agent thereof, except a duly licensed dispensary, display or cause to be displayed a sign or any other thing which could directly or by suggestion indicate the existence of the equivalent, in purpose and effect, of a dispensary.

SECT. 2. Any person who violates any of the provisions of this act, or any of the rules and regulations made and published under the authority of this act, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not less than ten dollars and not more than two hundred and fifty dollars.

SECT. 3. This act shall take effect October first, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight.

This bill was introduced into the legislature early in the session, and at first met with little or no opposition; but, when the bill was favorably reported by the Committee on Public Health of the Senate, to which it had been referred, vigorous protests were received by the chairman of the committee, and he requested the Senate to recommit it. Provision was then made by him for a public joint hearing of the friends and opponents of the measure before the Senate and Assembly Committee on Public Health. After full arguments on both sides the Senate committee reported the bill favorably to the Senate, which passed it with only two negative votes; but the Public Health Committee of the Assembly, to which it had been referred, failed to report the measure to the Assembly, although vigorous efforts were made by its friends to secure a favorable report, and it failed to become a law.

Among the features of the first bill which were considered objectionable was Section 5, which required that all persons desiring to avail themselves of the right to be treated in any dispensary should produce to the person or persons or corporation carrying on said dispensary a certificate in writing from the owner or owners of the premises wherein said person resides, or from the police captain in

charge of the district, or from the alderman of the district, or from any charity organization, that the said person is a poor person and unable to pay for medical treatment or medicine. It is evident that this would place too much power in the hands of politicians and irresponsible persons, and would not take the place of systematic investigation. Section 2 was also objectionable, in that it conferred the power upon certain medical societies to organize a board for the supervision of the dispensaries of the city of New York, this board to have the power to make rules, regulations, and by-laws for its organization and for the government and management of these dispensaries. It seemed to the committee that this was open to the objection that the board was composed entirely of physicians, and would not be considered by dispensary managers or by the public at large to be an impartial body. In the next place it conflicted with Section 11 of the recently revised constitution of the State of New York, which declares, "The legislature shall provide for a State Board of Charities, which shall visit and inspect all institutions, whether State, county, municipal, incorporated or unincorporated, which are of a charitable, eleemosynary, correctional, or a reformatory character."

The essential point of difference between the second bill and the third was that in the latter the definition of a dispensary was limited to such institutions as derived their income wholly or in part from trust funds, public moneys, or sources other than the individuals constituting the dispensary, and the persons actually engaged in the distribution of the charities of said dispensary. Another point was that it gave the State Board of Charities control over the dispensaries by empowering them to grant licenses to such institutions as, in their judgment, from the evidence submitted, would be for the public benefit. The board also had the power to revoke such licenses, after a public hearing had proved them to have violated the rules and regulations made by the board, instead of, as in the previous bill, the power to annul the act of incorporation.

Speaking of the last bill, while it was pending in the legislature the New York *Times* of Dec. 29, 1897, in the course of an editorial said: —

But that the abuses have been very considerable, and some of them have been peculiarly outrageous, and that reform is possi-

ble only through the exercise of a central authority, is a proposition that can hardly be denied. Dispensaries are necessarily, in their essence, agencies for the discharge of a trust. The funds for them are either public funds or are contributed by charitable persons to supply the needs of the poor for medical treatment, medicines, or apparatus. It is an obvious wrong that money devoted for such purposes should be expended in the aid of those who are able to pay. Not only is the money diverted from its intended and proper uses, and the intentions of the public or private givers thwarted, but those who have the benefit of it are demoralized, and downright cheating is encouraged. The proposition to require the dispensaries to have a license from the State Board of Charities, and to be subject to the rules and regulations of the board under penalty of suspension or revocation of the license, seems a reasonable one. It is plain that the Board of Charities could, without embarrassment, thoroughly deal with abuses which the managers of the dispensaries themselves would find very troublesome. The fact that the sentiment of the County Medical Society is strongly in favor of this plan is itself *prima facie* proof of its soundness.

The New York *Commercial Advertiser* of Dec. 28, 1897, commenting upon the same bill, says in an editorial: —

The bill is probably as good a one as could be prepared without being too stringent; and the power to make general regulations for the management of dispensaries, which it is proposed to confer upon the State Board of Charities, would not be abused by that board. The great trouble is that persons entirely able to pay for medical treatment persist in resorting to dispensaries out of avarice. . . . The dispensaries in this town prevent a deal of disease and suffering among the extreme poor, and this is for the public interest. When lack of vigilance enables the well-to-do to get free treatment and medicine, and an astonishingly large number are not ashamed to put on old clothes in an effort to secure it, some way should be found to exclude them.

The New York *Herald* of March 25, 1898, in alluding to the bill editorially, said: —

It is difficult to understand why the dispensaries and all similar charities which derive their income wholly or in part from trust funds, public moneys, or voluntary contributions, should not be under State supervision. There is no doubt that the outrageous misdirection of the dispensary system should be rectified. These institutions are ostensibly founded for the poor, but they are mostly used by those who are beyond all claims for charity. The ex-

tent to which the community is being pauperized by such means is shown by the fact, as proven by recent statistics, that fully 70 per cent. of the entire population of this city claim free medical service on the plea of inability to pay for it. There is certainly something wrong in a system when such results obtain. The persons who gave their money for the deserving poor have a right to know how it is used. By the present methods, all such service to the well-to-do takes just so much time and service from the deserving poor. It is a question of relative rights which calls for impartial investigation and direction. The State Board of Charities is eminently fitted for such work, and there is no good reason why the opportunities in the required direction should not be given to it.

The New York *Tribune* of March 24, 1898, in referring to the same bill, says, in the course of an editorial: —

It was carefully drawn, under the supervision of a statutory revision committee, and is designed to remedy a growing evil in the management of those charities which give outdoor medical relief, and which are known as "dispensaries." The original and proper intention of these institutions is to give proper medical relief to the sick poor who are suffering from simple diseases, and yet are unable to employ a physician. If judiciously managed, and only the really destitute sick are treated, they must accomplish a vast amount of good. The old dispensaries, some of which have been in existence from the early part of the century, have generally been managed with great care; but during the last thirty years such institutions have been multiplied until, according to the best medical authorities, they are largely in excess of the real wants of the sick poor. The management has also greatly deteriorated in many respects. The rooms occupied by numerous dispensaries are inadequate and unsanitary. Few attempt, by any proper system of investigation, to prevent the attendance of persons able to pay. The methods of treatment are too often superficial and harmful. The druggist is in too many cases not qualified by education or experience for his duties. To remedy these evils, the bill empowers the State Board of Charities, which now exercises a general supervision over the dispensaries, to make and enforce rules governing their management. The necessity of conferring power on some authority, not only to regulate the increase of these charities, but to prevent abuse in their management, is now acknowledged by the medical profession and all workers in charity organization. The State Board of Charities is recognized in the constitution as the proper body to make rules governing the reception and retention of the inmates of certain institutions, and hence is the proper body to exercise such powers over dispensaries.

The New York *Mail and Express* of Jan. 25, 1898, in the course of an editorial on dispensary abuse, says that one reason why this abuse has been countenanced is found "in the keen competition among the sixty-six dispensaries for the greatest number of cases, in order to affect appropriations."

From the statements already made, it seems clear that, if the existing abuse of medical charity is to be controlled, the first requisite is an impartial body which shall control and make rules and regulations for the government of all institutions seeking to do the semi-public service of undertaking to relieve the sick poor. Such a body is provided for by the legislature under the constitution in the State Board of Charities, which board is given the power to visit and inspect all institutions, whether State, county, municipal, incorporated, or unincorporated, which are of a charitable, eleemosynary, correctional, or reformatory character. The legislature also gave this board prohibitory powers over the charities under its supervision when it provided that the board should approve or disapprove the organization and incorporation of all such institutions. This power extends even to controlling payments by counties, cities, towns, or villages to charitable, eleemosynary, correctional, or reformatory institutions for the support of the inmates. It is evident, therefore, that it would be only a slight extension of this power for the board to assume control and supervision of the dispensaries of the State by issuing and revoking licenses. As these institutions are largely supported by public moneys, charitable contributions, and trust funds, the necessity for a proper supervision of their accounts by the State would seem imperative. Again, as dispensaries are primarily intended for the treatment of the sick poor only, it is evident that this object can only be attained through the exclusion of the well-to-do by an organized general system of investigation. We are beginning to hear, says Ely, in his introduction to his "Political Economy," "of a science of charity; and it is sorely needed, for the old-fashioned almsgiving is a curse."

REMEDIAL MEASURES PROPOSED FOR PENNSYLVANIA.

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It is hardly deemed necessary to occupy time to prove to any of you that there are conditions which imperatively demand reform. You also well know that it is easier to speak of misdirection than to correct it.

The ultimate wrong consists in the reception of professional advice and services and material required in putting it into effect, without rendering compensation more or less adequate on the part of those whose circumstances would permit them to do so. If the moral sentiment in these persons could be so shaped as to prevent them from committing what they may consider a slight wrong, or if their judgments could be so trained as to recognize the true character of their offences, the question would be summarily solved. I say if their judgments could be properly trained, because I believe that a large number, possibly the majority of the offenders, think that they are only availing themselves of their rights; what is more, that by their patronage they are conferring a favor upon the institution whose hospitality they accept.

Is this remarkable, when we consider the obtrusive signs calling attention to the "Free Medical Dispensary" and to the "medical services gratuitously rendered"? Are the advertisements in the daily papers, which have occasionally appeared, inviting attendance on the clinics and dispensaries of institutions that are regarded as reputable establishments, specific in mentioning that those unable to pay only are appealed to? I am convinced that a very large percentage of the patients that visit dispensaries or occupy free beds in hospitals would be greatly surprised to learn that no medical services, from those of lowest assistant to the highest professor, were directly paid for. To a very small extent, indeed, can we blame the unworthy recipients of medical charity for the abuse.

The next factor, as we move backward along the line of sequences, is the charitable institution. The mere fact that an institution has

come into existence imposes the necessity of making it successful, as that word goes. A hospital with all its beds constantly filled, and with its dispensary halls daily crowded to overflowing, appears to the community to be a flourishing and useful establishment of the highest order. The annual report need not show a cash balance or a solid array of sound assets. It need only display great columns of figures and stupendous totals of cases treated, visits made, and contributions and endowments raked in, to appeal to the public conscience for hearty indorsement and lavish praise. With vague intimations of "many poor and worthy applicants turned away," of increasing deficiency in its financial resources, and of fears of the necessity of contracting its work or suspending it altogether, it can turn with assurance to the legislature for a large appropriation. I would very much regret to be understood as advocating the abolition of hospitals. They are among the crowning glories of this humane and enlightened age. But, so far as a hospital is intended to furnish the means of treatment with the most approved appliances and the most expert professional skill for those who can pay in proportion to what they get, it should be run on strict business principles, and be made, like any other business institution, a financial success. So far as it administers charity, the records ought to be kept strictly distinct; the administration should account fully and specifically to the sources of the endowments and appropriations; and an adequate system of examination of applicants should be enforced, to insure the rejection of all impostors.

Hospitals come into existence for various reasons. A wealthy individual, with philanthropic impulses, makes a donation or bequest. Even were this originally sufficient to fully establish and maintain it, through the ambition of those who become connected with it, the field is usually extended, the funds become insufficient, and the inevitable appeal to the public, to other benefactors, and to the State treasury, ensues. Here lies a field for education, and probably also for legislation. Bequests and donations ought to be so guarded by the specifications or will of the donor or testator or by statute law that they could not be turned into channels in which, despite the desire of the benefactor to do good, they become the cause of demoralization and wrong. When a free bed is endowed in a hospital, it ought, under the conditions of the endowment, to be free only to such as are not able to pay for similar conveniences; and such

inability to pay ought to be established by a specific set of circumstances. Where these provisions do not accompany an endowment, no hospital should have the power to receive them. In such ways only lies the safeguard against imposition. Thus can we protect the poor in their rights, the charitable in their noble intentions, the medical profession in its means of livelihood, and the community against fraud.

Hospitals also come into existence as an expression of the humanity, the tenderness, and the good will of religious and fraternal bodies, or they arise out of a popular feeling in a neighborhood, which moves it to mercy and to especial care for the poor and sick within its borders. However pure and laudable may be the motive in the inception, abuse and misdirection under the present system are sure to prevail in the result.

It is probably in hospitals which are erected in connection with medical colleges that the most flagrant violation of the best principles are noted. Created purely for the purpose of securing clinical material for demonstrative purposes in the course of instruction, the most active efforts of every one interested in the success of the educational institution are sought to be enlisted in swelling the number of applicants to both the indoor and the out-patient service. The man who can "build up the clinic" is the successful applicant for the position of dispensary chief. The man who can so marshal all his forces as to keep the wards in the hospital constantly filled with "interesting" cases is the desirable man for the professorial position.

No questions are asked as to ability to pay an amount adequate to the support of the style in which these patients are entertained. That matter can be solved in the lobby at the capital. There during the sessions of the legislature the more "prominent" gentlemen of the faculty are frequently noticed. Or, what is fully as much to the taste of both the legislator and the professor, the former becomes, in great numbers, always embracing the Committee on Appropriations, frequently the guest of the latter. What sacrifice of time, of money, of energy, so that the sick indigent may be properly cared for!

But the subject is well-nigh inexhaustible,— with the determination of the politician to establish his success with his most influential constituents; the ambition of the doctor on the medical staff to

increase the importance of the institution with which he is connected, and, incidentally, his own prestige and power; the pride of the trustee or manager in his connection with a massive institution, associated in the minds of the people with purely beneficent work; the efforts of the dispensary physician to "feed the clinic," and thus to enhance his claims on his masters and the institution they control; the mistaken notions controlling the wealthy and charitable of the commercial classes as to the best means of dispensing charity; the misconception of the masses of the community regarding public beneficent institutions; the greed and impudence of a small number willing to stultify themselves, to hoard in their own pockets, or to spend in less necessary directions the amount of a few respectable medical fees; the timidity and modesty of the really deserving poor, who, in the great majority of cases, are, after all, only succored in their illness through the private charity of the family practitioner — all these must be dealt with in even a superficial analysis of the subject.

But what can you, gentlemen, whom I have the honor to address, do in bringing about reform in this matter? As men who hold distinguished and most honorable positions,— places which we know come only to those who rank high in their communities for probity and strength of character,— you can at least give this cause strong moral support. The medical profession realizes full well that the blame for these conditions rests more on it than on any other special class. It, too, recognizes that the time is ripe, that, indeed, the principle of self-preservation compels it to throw off the shackles which it has only too willingly forged on itself. From all parts of our common country come indications that decisive and concerted action will soon be taken. In the progress of these movements it will be no small comfort to us to feel that we are understood by you, gentlemen. No official bodies understand better than you — owing to your constant association with medical men in the discharge of your duties — that throughout its history our profession has ever stood out grandly in the example of sacrifice of personal gain for public good. You, gentlemen, better than any others who are not of our profession, will best know how to construe our motives.

If a petition to the State for an appropriation to an institution having medical aspects could only be presented after having received the approval of the local board of health of the district in which it

originated, and could only come before the legislature after having received the joint investigation and indorsement of the State Board of Health and the State Board of Charities, I believe that a safeguard against misappropriation of the State's money would have been secured that would be invaluable.

My knowledge of what has been done in Pennsylvania is confined to the movement in Philadelphia. In fact, I doubt whether any special action has been taken in any other part of the State.

On Feb. 4, 1898, a meeting was held at the Charity Hospital "to protest against the indiscriminate free treatment of patients at hospitals." Addresses were made and papers were read. Among those participating in the proceedings were Dr. Horace J. Evans, president of the meeting, Dr. A. B. Hirsch, Dr. Sinexon, Dr. Pernoc, and Dr. Lopez, of Philadelphia, and Dr. F. H. Wiggin, of New York. The following set of resolutions were adopted: —

Whereas the abuse of medical charities in the various hospitals and dispensaries throughout the city and State has assumed so great proportions and has become such an injustice to the actual worthy poor as well as to the medical practitioner, and

Whereas the Philadelphia County Medical Society being the representative body of this city, and being, therefore, the most competent to consider the proper action to correct the abuse, be it

Resolved, That we request that a meeting of the society be called for the discussion of this subject, to which shall be invited the members of the Board of Charities and Correction and the boards of managers and the trustees of the different hospitals and dispensaries throughout the city, to co-operate in the discussion of the subject, to suggest such legislation as may be deemed expedient, and to formulate a method for the restriction or abatement of the evil.

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the president of the society to present these resolutions to the Philadelphia County Medical Society.

These resolutions were offered at a subsequent meeting of the County Medical Society, but that body refused to act on them.

On February 22 a special meeting of the Medico-legal Society was held, at which papers on various phases of the subject were read by Dr. Wilson Buckby, Dr. Jno. I. McGuigan, and the present writer. A vigorous discussion followed; and a committee of five members of the society was appointed to present a report on the subject at another special meeting to be held on March 22. At this meeting another paper was read by Dr. A. M. Eaton; and, after a full discussion, the following report of the committee was adopted:

Your committee appointed to investigate the alleged abuse of medical charities, to determine its features, and to suggest rational methods for their elimination, begs leave to report that, after careful examination of what has been brought to its notice, the committee is decided that gross abuses exist, that they may be at least partly and chiefly classified, and that definite and practical remedies can be applied.

Your committee recognizes that the causes are complex, that the evil is deeply rooted, and that the reform will necessarily be difficult and laborious ; that, to accomplish the latter, there must be in all the methods adopted careful consideration of the beneficent and useful features of existing and projected institutions, hesitancy in the creation of personal animosities, and broad, comprehensive views of the public good and of the mission of the medical profession.

Your committee tabulates the phases of the abuse as : —

First. The bestowal of medical services, therapeutic measures, and maintenance gratuitously on great numbers who are able to render for the same compensation in greater or less degree commensurate with such application.

Second. In thus begetting in many such persons sentiments dangerous to the rights of their fellow-beings and inimical to the true spirit of our commercial, social, and governmental institutions.

Third. In thus diverting from their legitimate object, the care of the worthy sick poor, the means provided for them.

Fourth. In the misappropriation of public funds to the detriment of private enterprise.

Fifth. In thus diverting such funds from their proper use by the State in the care of such as the insane, the crippled, the epileptic, and other degenerate and incurable classes, which the advanced science of the day has shown to be its proper wards.

Sixth. The establishment, by virtue of the foregoing abuses, of medical positions which give almost irresistible opportunities to those occupying them to reap pecuniary profit and unearned reputation and fame at the expense of their fellow-members of the profession.

Seventh. The incidental creation of a universal tendency in those who enter the profession to select, even on their advent as students, special departments of medicine to the neglect of the whole field, with the result of narrowing the general professional character and of producing a demand for institutions which conduce to their training, thus completing a vicious circle of supply and demand.

Your committee tabulates the lines of action along which the reforms must proceed : —

First. The establishment of a system, uniform throughout the institutions, of a municipality, under which careful inquiry, with the observation of due delicacy, is made, which will determine the justice of an applicant's claim on medical charity.

Second. The appeal to the individual members of the profession to study and introduce practical methods into their work, whereby they will modify their fees or, in certain cases, relinquish them altogether, in accordance with the circumstances of their poorer patients, whose real merits they have the best opportunity of ascertaining.

Third. The establishment of a better understanding between the general practitioner and the specialist, whereby the willingness of the latter to modify his private office fees in favor of the really deserving, which undoubtedly very generally exists, may be better known to the former.

Fourth. The establishment of a system that will enable the private practitioner to retain distinct professional relations with a patient while he is an inmate of a hospital or an out-patient at a dispensary.

Fifth. The introduction of control, by properly authorized public boards, over all appropriations by the State to medical institutions, whereby the expenditure of the money can be faithfully watched, and its original gift determined by the real merits of the institution.

Sixth. The intervention of appropriate legislation to secure the regulations mentioned, with others that on further study of the question may be demonstrated as practical. In this connection your committee desires to call attention to the bill before the New York legislature.

Seventh. The demand from the general profession upon our medical schools to assist the movement looking to the correction of these abuses by the powerful influence which their faculties can wield, by the inculcation of appropriate sentiments in their students and by the appropriate modification of the course of study, this demand to be made with the assurance that their necessity for clinical material will be fully respected in the pursuit of this movement, and that no real retrogression is required.

Eighth. The thorough organization of the profession is the system of county, State, and national societies, whereby the power of full representation can be thoroughly exerted.

Your committee begs leave to offer for the consideration of the society the following resolutions: —

Resolved, first, That it is the sense of this society that the organized profession in this State should secure the passage of a bill by the legislature, either similar to that now before the legislature of New York or so modified as to suit any peculiar local conditions which exist.

Resolved, second, That it is the sense of this society that the organized profession in this city, represented by the County Society, should so move on the governing forces of all institutions as to secure their co-operation in determining the dispensation of medical charity exclusively to persons who are without means to pay for private attendance and supplies.

Resolved, third, That it is the sense of this society that the organized profession should endeavor to use to the fullest extent consistent with professional

ethics the lay and the medical press to enlighten the public and the profession on this question, and for the advocacy of proper methods of reform.

Resolved, fourth, That it is the sense of this society that, in the pursuit of these resolutions, the conservation of all established or projected rational measures for public beneficences, and for advanced scientific medical training, shall be jealously guarded, and, if possible, enhanced.

Resolved, fifth, That we advocate the establishment of a system of adequate and direct payment for medical services in all institutions requiring such services.

Resolved, sixth, That we advocate an appeal from the County Society to the faculties of the medical colleges and the medical staffs of hospitals for the support of the measures embodied in these resolutions and the propositions submitted in connection with them.

Resolved, seventh, That we advocate the exercise of systematic and organized influence by the profession on candidates for the legislature during political campaigns, and on the members of that body during its sessions, for the purpose of securing desired and appropriate legislation.

Resolved, eighth, That, in any rearrangement of the location of medical charities, distinct and definite topographical considerations shall prevail.

Resolved, ninth, That we advocate dissemination of information on these subjects by addresses before rural county societies, with free and full discussion, and that the Philadelphia County Society appeal to them for support of measures of reform through their delegates to the State society, and by resolutions addressed to their representatives in the legislature, as well as by the exercise of the influence of their individual members.

Resolved, tenth, That it is the sense of the society that an efficient means in the prosecution of these reforms would be a large, permanent commission for the investigation and recommendation of means and methods, and that such a commission should embrace representatives from all the existing medical societies in this city, from all the college faculties, from the medical staffs of all the hospitals, and from the profession in general, so as to represent it topographically.

Resolved, eleventh, That the organized profession should be best represented by the county societies, and that, to be so representative, these societies should embrace in their membership all eligible practitioners.

Therefore, Resolved, twelfth, That the members of this society not connected with the County Society are urgently solicited to join that body and, together with all present members, to use their privileges and prestige by frequent and faithful attendance on its meetings and active, earnest participation in the management of its affairs.

Resolved, thirteenth, That this appeal to non-members of the county societies and to the present members shall be considered as made to the profession at large, and not to members of this society alone.

(Signed) SAMUEL WOLFE, *Chairman*.
A. M. EATON.
JNO. I. MCGUIGAN.
JNO. H. W. CHESTNUT.
WENDELL REBER.

On May 4 a largely attended meeting, presided over by Judge Ashman, was held in the hall of the College of Physicians. The meeting was intended to be representative of the staffs and boards of the various institutions of the city in which medical charity is administered. The main speakers were Dr. Edward Jackson, presi-

dent of the Philadelphia County Medical Society, Dr. J. W. Walk, of the Board of Health, and Dr. Burnett. The result was a motion to appoint a committee of physicians to examine into the subject and to report at a future meeting, which, up to the present writing, has not been called.

It will be seen that the subject has received within a few months much attention, and that out of the agitation will probably soon come such organization and action as will give hope for extensive reform.

XII.

Dependent Children.

THE STREET ARAB.

AN ADDRESS BY MRS. E. E. WILLIAMSON.

I came to this Conference in New York, this great city, with rather a fear in my heart that it might not be a success; but the New York members of the Conference have made it a most notable success. We have had crowded meetings, the subjects have been handled with judicious care by all those who have spoken, the papers have been to the point, and we have discussed theories and fundamental principles in such a way that it will be a great benefit to the Conference hereafter.

I am simply going to give you, in a very few words, some anecdotes of the street Arab of New York, of Chicago, of Baltimore, and of Boston,— the street boy of the United States.

These street boys, my friends, sometimes make our best and noblest citizens. We find them all around us in our large cities. I have made a close study of them during the last few months, and have made up my mind that they are not only honest, honorable, and industrious, but that they are chivalrous. With the right kind of training in their own environment, not in taking and placing them in homes above their station, you can make of them the best of men. I speak advisedly, because I have studied the question thoroughly right here in the streets of New York. I have visited them in their homes, I have studied them in City Hall Park, I have studied them in the 8th Avenue cars and the upper part of the city.

I stepped into an 8th Avenue car not long ago; and, when I entered, I found three persons seated there,— a man, a woman, and a little boy. The little boy was probably about nine years of age. He was a very attractive little boy to me. He was not handsome,

but he was attractive. He had on a ragged coat and a pair of very poor shoes and a hat that did not fit him; but his hands were clean, his hair had been brushed, and his face washed. I sat opposite to him, and looked into his face for a few moments; and, as I looked, I saw that he was gradually being attracted to me. I looked again and again into his eyes, and I made up my mind that that boy was worth knowing. I crossed the car, and seated myself close to him, and began talking to him.

"Where have you been?" "I have been up to Central Park." I said, "Where are you going?" He answered, "Down to the Battery to see the fellers." Then he looked a moment longer; and he said, "I ran away from school to-day: I am playing hookey." I said, "Oh, well, I won't tell." Then I asked, "What are you going to do down at the Battery?" He said: "I am going to see the fellers what sells newspapers, and we are going to do all sorts of things down there to run away from the cops. I am going to have a fine time." Then he looked at me for a moment or two, and finally he said: "I know I am going to get a licking when I get home, but I don't care. I have had a bully day."

I talked to him along these lines for several blocks; and at last I opened my pocket-book and took out five cents, and handed it to him. "I can't bear to think of your walking away up to 90th Street," said I. "So I give you five cents to ride home with." He held it in his hand, and was very quiet; and, at last, he turned round, and said: "Take it back. I don't want it. Take it back." I said, "That is very remarkable." He said, "I won't tell you no lies. I should spend it on candy."

I crossed that City Hall Park, where the *Journal* sings its patriotic song and the boys get their "extras." I went into the midst of a group, and engaged them in conversation. At first they were a little shy of me, and looked at me askance, as much as to say, "What are you doing here, and what do you mean to do for us?" At last, I gained their confidence, and I learned a great many things about the way they transacted their business. One, a bigger boy than the rest said, "That is the fellow that makes the most money," pointing to a little boy seven or eight years old. I looked steadily into his eyes, and said, "How do you do it?" He whispered, "I put on my raggedest clothes." You see, he had an eye to business. Now in New York almost every one has an eye to business, but you would

hardly think that a little street boy would know so well how to manage his affairs as that.

I live in a city which is close by New York. I am pretty well known in that city, and hold a public position and do a great deal of public work; and therefore I use the telegraph a great deal, and telephone service. In that way I come in contact with and know pretty nearly all the boys who run about with the telegrams.

I was seated in my library one day last winter; and my maid came in to me, and said, "There are four telegraph boys waiting outside to see you: shall I send them in?" I said, "Oh, yes, send them right in." As they came in, I looked at them, and I saw that they were prepared for something very unusual. They had blackened their boots and fixed themselves up, although it was in the middle of the day. I said, "Johnny, what do you come here for to-day, and why do you want to see me?" "Well, Mrs. Williamson, Tommy's mother is very sick, indeed; and Tommy has had to lay off, and go home to take care of her." I said: "I am very sorry to hear that. I know Tommy Brown's mother. She is a good woman." He said, "Yes, she is a good woman: and we fellows have been paying a substitute." I asked, "How long have you been paying a substitute?" and he said, "We have been paying him five days, and we can't stand it no longer." I said: "Well, it is hard on you boys. How do you manage to do it?" and he replied: "Well, we work nights, and we have not got to bed before one o'clock; and we cannot do the work of the day and night, too. And we just feel too bad for anything." And tears began running down his face. I said: "Boys, this is a serious situation. Sit down, and we will talk it all over."

So they sat down in a row,—they were all crying by this time. Of course, I knew how to help them out of their dilemma, for I saw through it at once; but I wanted them to tell their own tale. Well, this little boy was the only support of his mother, or very nearly so: he was very fond of her, and loved her dearly; and these boys, recognizing that fact, had made up a purse to help him through his difficulties. But the mother was sick too long, and they could not stand it.

"Well," said I, "what do you want me to do?" They said: "We want you to lend us the money. The superintendent says that you will lend us the money; and we will work it out some time, doing

your errands." I said: "That is a very good suggestion. I will lend you the money, and you can work it out for me some other time." Their faces brightened up, and they went away glad-hearted.

But I hear you ask, "Why didn't you give them the money?" Because it was a business proposition on the part of these boys. It will be something that they will carry through their lives, and remember always. They wanted to conduct a little piece of business on their own hook. Those boys have paid that debt.

I was visiting in Boston a few months ago, and took a cab and rode down to the slums of Boston. There are some slums in Boston, although I do not think that the people of Boston will ever allow it. I rode down to try to find some one to do some work for me; and, as I drove up to the sidewalk, a little colored boy stepped up, and very graciously opened the door for me to get out. I looked in my pocket-book, and found I had nothing but a five-dollar bill. So I said, "I am so sorry, for I wanted to give you ten cents." "I did not do it for that," he said,—"I did not do it for that." And then he ran away, very much hurt because I had intended to offer him ten cents. That is Boston courtesy.

Another very interesting thing came to my notice the other day in connection with the street boys of New York. A young lady of my acquaintance — indeed, she is my secretary — was going down to the ferry one evening. She wanted to buy a paper and see the war news. So she opened her pocket-book, and found that she had no change. There was a little fellow standing by, holding an *Evening Post.* She said, "I cannot buy a paper, because I have not a penny." And he said: "Take it. I'll trust you." And she said: "Why will you trust me? You certainly would not trust any one you don't know." And he said, "I can read human natur." And he ran off, crying his "extras"; and that young lady had the pleasure of paying for her paper the next evening.

These are true stories, and certainly come with a great deal of point to us who are working along the lines of child-saving. Ought we not to assist and help these boys in their own homes, making good citizens of them in the environment in which they were born, not separating families and disturbing the family relations, but where it is possible by our individual effort keeping the home circle, making the mother better, and helping the father to keep the home together?

THE HOME OR THE INSTITUTION?

BY THOMAS M. MULRY.

How far a State or municipality may interfere in behalf of its wards is one of the peculiar questions which opens up so many fields of thought and inquiry that, the more we consider the subject, the less likely we are to venture a decided reply.

On the one side, there is the danger of too much interference and of drifting into a sort of paternalism; on the other, the possibility of the State not taking sufficient interest in its wards to protect and guard them properly. People have fairly gone crazy over this question of sociology; and many have evolved from their inner consciousness theories which they advocate with the greatest vehemence,— theories which, if carried into practice, would destroy the work of years, and put us back a quarter of a century in the working out of the problem of how best to care for our dependent children. Take, for instance, the man with what might be called institution-phobia. He would close every institution to-morrow if it were possible. He would have the State or municipality institute a boarding-out system, placing every child in a home,— not necessarily an ideal one, but still, no matter how far from the ideal, in his mind, far, far ahead of an institution. He lies awake at night, his mind filled with dreadful pictures of institution life. When he sleeps, he dreams of the institution walk, of the institution look; and he talks at all times of the piece of machinery, in the shape of a human being, which the institution turns out.

Do you know it is very easy to drift into this line of thought, and that the man with this one idea will see nothing good in anything else?

If he had his way, if the State were to pass a law to please him, he would have the children scattered over the land, east and west, north and south. I will not attempt to enter into any length on this subject of boarding out.

I believe that, when conditions allow, and under proper direction, children with no relatives should be adopted in families as soon as possible. I also believe that it is the duty of the State to see that

such children are placed in homes of their own religious faith; but I do not believe it will be possible in a large city, like New York, to adopt the boarding-out system without grave danger of abuse, and I am sure it will be impossible to show as good results as in a well-managed institution. To properly control this work, it would require an expenditure of money which a board of apportionment would never consent to allow, and a careful supervision which it would be next to impossible to give to the work. Despite every precaution, people would take children for the money they would obtain thereby; and no supervision could force them to give proper care to the wards of the State.

But supposing it were possible to place all such children in homes. Have the children no rights? What is the State? Is it not the aggregation of families bound together for mutual protection? I say the State has no right to exercise such sweeping powers. The State is as much entitled to respect the rights of the poorest child as that of its most powerful citizen.

During the past week you have visited the New York Juvenile Asylum and the Catholic Protectory. I will not attempt to explain anything regarding the management of those excellent institutions. They speak for themselves. I will ask, however, that you look at the class of children in those institutions, and then show you the injustice there would be in placing them out under the boarding-out system.

One class is made up of children who are truants or are unruly at home. A few years of discipline in an institution, following the regular course of studies, and then they are sent back to their homes, in most cases the material for good citizens.

The other class is made up of the destitute. Sickness of the head of family, loss of one or both parents, dissipation on the part of guardians, have been the causes of their admission to the institutions. It is only a question of a few years when, perhaps, parents or relatives will be in a position to support them, or they will be able to rejoin the family circle and support themselves.

In the mean time the family bond is kept up and fostered by frequent visits on the part of parent or relative. This is an encouragement to both child and natural guardian.

In my experience of twenty-six years I have seen some of the most dissipated parents brought to their senses by having their chil-

dren temporarily taken from them. Surely, it would be the refinement of cruelty to refuse to restore children to parents after they have given visible proof by a change in their mode of living of a desire and intention to do better.

During all this time the children are being educated in every practical study that may be of use to them in the world. Just imagine such children scattered over the country, where the parents may rarely, if ever, see them! You can easily perceive what an incentive to self-support and thrift would be lost to the parent in not having that inspiration which the frequent sight of the children would give.

I have the privilege of being a member of the Catholic Protectory Board. In that institution 90 per cent. of the children are discharged to their parents. Mr. Elbridge T. Gerry, one of the greatest workers in the cause of charity in this country, whose opinion is of great value, has said that, in all his experience among the courts and prisons, he has scarcely ever come across a Protectory boy or girl. This is a very good showing, and proves that institutions are not so bad, after all.

I am sure no one deplores more than I do the necessity for institutions; but this is no reason why we should stand idly by, waiting for the millennium, when there will be no further need for them. Every one believes that the ounce of prevention is worth the pound of cure, and there is no doubt that the only natural life for the child is the home life.

I am a member of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, which numbers in this country 8,000 active members. Its great object is the preservation of the home. We assist the poor, giving them, as our rules advise, material help in the way of food, clothing, etc., and also assisting them with the "alms of good advice." We have no salaried official. The work is a purely voluntary one, the members spending part of their leisure time in visiting the poor in their homes. In this city we have 1,200 members. In the twelve months ending Dec. 31, 1897, we visited over 7,300 families, in which were over 20,000 children, and expended nearly $50,000. Organizations like the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and the Hebrew United Charities, are doing the prevention work in this city. Something more than legislation is required to carry on this work to a successful issue.

Despite all the legislation against crime, our prisons are crowded. If you cannot legislate crime out of existence, do you think you can legislate poverty from the face of the earth? While the world lasts, we have been told, the poor will be with us. With all our modern improvements, we are not advancing very far in our field of charity.

The other day a gentleman remarked that in this child-saving business we were going back to the dark ages. Those much-abused dark ages solved the problem of caring for destitute children by the establishing of workingmen's guilds. When sickness or death overtook a man, his wife and children received as a right their support from those guilds.

The solution of this great question of the care of dependent children comes, to my mind, more under the scope of the churches than under that of legislators. The American people should be a religious people; and yet, in all the discussions carried on here, the religious aspect of the question is never dwelt upon. All the efficient lasting work done for children to-day is accomplished under the direction of the various churches. The best results attained in institutions are to be found where religion is the groundwork of the system.

Daniel Webster said that the man who sincerely practised religion of some sort was sure to make a good citizen. Therefore, if we could instil into the hearts of our poor a love of religion, if we could make them practical and earnest in their religious customs, no matter to which denomination they might belong, we would make them self-supporting, thrifty, sober, and industrious, make them devoted to their families, proud of their homes, and so careful of their children that none would find their way into institutions because of dissipation or neglect of parents.

One point more. I believe that every child in every institution should have the advice and guidance of the clergyman of his own denomination. The Constitution of this country guarantees to all the freedom of worshipping God according to the conscience. It is the duty of the State to see that its wards enjoy all such privileges. If in this land there is any public or private institution in which are children denied their privileges, it is the duty of the State to correct such abuses.

I feel that I am touching on very much disputed territory in making this assertion. I know that in many parts of the country,

even in the city of New York, we have not reached the fulness of my anticipations in this regard, but we are fast getting there; and the interchanging of ideas, the meeting together of people in such conferences as this, will broaden our minds, open our eyes to the foolish prejudices which may have influenced us in the past, and will draw us more closely together in the common object of furthering the interests of our beloved country.

In this city of New York — I believe it might be called the City of Brotherly Love, so far as our charity work is concerned — we work harmoniously on the lines upon which we all can agree; and it is surprising to find what a large field we can thus labor in.

I am a member of the Charity Organization Society and of the Local Conference of Charities. The Children's Aid Society is on the most friendly terms with us, even going so far as to find Catholic homes for our Catholic children; and it refers to us any case it deems we can best benefit. Is not this the true charity, which we are all trying to practise?

As a citizen, as a Catholic citizen, I should be very ungrateful, did I not give public testimony to the fact that much of our present good condition in all lines of charities is due to the public spirit, fair-minded action, and untiring devotion to duty of our distinguished president, Mr. William R. Stewart, for whom we have the utmost respect and the warmest affection.

THE DUTY OF THE STATE TO DEPENDENT CHILDREN.

BY BYRON C. MATHEWS.

In its full sense the word "State" means the people, all of them, for whom government is simply a means to an end. This machinery in its latest and best development belongs to the people and is constituted by them. Our topic means, then, exactly what it would mean if it were worded "The Duty of Society to its Dependent Children." Dependent children must be cared for for their own sakes, if for no other reason; but the interests of society at large constitute a chief, perhaps the chiefest, reason for State care of all dependants. All engaged in philanthropic efforts, whether they believe in the sociological theory of a social organism or not, are compelled by facts to accept the fact of social solidarity, which must be taken into account in the discussion of all social questions. Whatever affects one part of society affects all parts.

Who are the dependent children with whom we are now concerned? They are not the defectives or delinquents. We shall confine our discussion to the able in body and sound in mind who have no parents or other friends to provide for them, and who are too young to provide for themselves. This class includes all foundlings and such other children as have been deserted, and those left parentless and friendless through death or other misfortune.

Another class ought to be made dependent by State authority. These are the children of those parents who because of their degradation have neither the means nor the disposition to properly provide for and educate them. It is the duty of the State to take such children into its own care as its wards. This may seem like trespassing upon parental rights; but parents, on the other hand, have no right to bring children into the world to become a burden and a menace to society in the form of beggars and criminals. It is society's privilege — nay, rather its duty — early to remove children from their parents under such circumstances, and train them for life. The social surgeon must not allow sentiment to influence the movements of his knife, but he must cut straight and deep if the welfare

of society demands it. The relation of parent to child is to be sacredly guarded, but general welfare is to be more sacredly guarded. Whenever it becomes evident that by leaving a child with its parents either the welfare of society or the child's prospects for life are endangered, there can be no question regarding the duty of the State. It must sometimes make children dependent upon itself.

If, through misfortune, parents are unable to care for and educate their children when they would gladly do it, I have no hesitation in saying that the State ought in some way to render the necessary assistance to such parents. The fact that parents through misfortune are not able to educate their children and fit them for honorable life ought not to prevent this being done. The cause of humanity would not be served by separating children from parents because they have been unfortunate. That would be cruel. We must distinguish between misfortune as a cause of poverty, on the one hand, and immorality and shiftlessness, on the other. How, then, can the needed results be attained? By the State so adjusting its relation to all such cases through legal enactment that it can provide for such families without separating children from parents, and can do for the children all that the State demands of families who have not suffered misfortune, and have the means to provide for their children.

Many children who are now classed as delinquents would more properly be classed as dependants. Through parental neglect, and not because of any unusual criminal tendencies, they have at first become mischievous, deceitful, tricky, and trespassers against law, until finally, because of some act a little more bold and perhaps more flagrant than usual, an officer of the law takes them to the police court, where they are stamped juvenile criminals; and from that time they are reckoned among the delinquent class. They are too often sent to penal institutions where they come into contact with old and hardened criminals. In more advanced communities, however, they are commonly sent to some institution intended to care for young offenders, when many of them ought to be treated as dependants instead of criminals. All the reformative agencies large numbers of them need are such as every good home provides. It is cruel to commit a boy to a penal or reformatory institution, and thus put the criminal stamp upon him, simply because he has been neglected by his parents, when, in reality, he is as good as the

average boy. He is an object of pity for his misfortune rather than a subject of punishment for his deed. The State's positive duty to all such boys and girls is to take them out of the damning environment into which fate, beyond their control, has put them, and to provide right environment for them. Such children ought to be separated from their parents, and made dependent upon the State in all cases where it is evident they have no unusual tendency to crime and evil, but are simply apparently bad because of parental neglect. Delinquents, then, ought to include not only those who have no parents or other friends to care for them, but also all children whose parents, though living, fail to do for them what society can reasonably expect them to do.

With the end of general welfare in view, what is the State's duty to all these dependent children? What ought society to do for this class? It ought to do exactly what it expects or can reasonably demand that every well-ordered family shall do for its children. Society demands that the children of the family shall, first of all, be provided by their parents with the means of physical sustenance. But this alone is not sufficient. Society also demands that they shall be educated, shall be trained in moral practices, and that this education and training shall be such as to develop in the child self-reliance and a correct understanding of his relations to his fellows in life. It is reasonable to demand also that every child, every boy at least, shall be taught some means of livelihood in which his individual capabilities can be brought into service, and he shall thus be trained for useful citizenship. Well-regulated families do all this for their children. So it is the State's duty to put into operation such agencies as will accomplish all these results with its dependent children. But how can the State accomplish the same results for its wards that the family accomplishes for its children? We answer, By putting them into the same kind of environment as children in well-regulated families are in. Where can such environment be found? Only in well-regulated families. The family is the natural, and the only natural, environment for a child. The easiest and, in fact, the only possible way for the State to secure family environment for a child is to find the family and put the child into it. It is utterly impossible to manufacture such environment to order. It is not made of brick and mortar. It is a development under the joint efforts and administration of a husband and wife, a father and a

mother. Through this development only can family environment be produced.

Since then it is the State's duty to do for its dependent wards all that it can reasonably expect the family to do for its children, and since this can be done only by means of family environment, and since such environment cannot be manufactured to order for the purpose, the only course open for the State to follow is to place all dependent children in private homes. To some the query may arise whether homes enough can be found for all such children. Recent experience has demonstrated that through proper and sufficient agencies enough homes can be found for all who are sound in body and mind,— certainly, if such agencies are supplemented by the advantages of the boarding-out plan. The home plan does not anticipate home-finding for the sick or the feeble-minded. These must be cared for in other ways,— in institutions.

There are many lonely homes in which the only occupants are parents whose children have left them to make homes of their own or possibly have died. There are many others in which the only occupants are husband and wife, who have never had their homes brightened by the presence of children of their own. There are still other homes in which the only child is a girl, and a boy may be desired, or the reverse may be the case. Numerous reasons will occur to us why children are to be desired in all these homes.

If such a desirable end should be accomplished, what would become of the many institutions now devoted to the care and training of these young dependants? I do not know. There would certainly be no reason for their existence, except as already indicated for the defective in body or mind or both. Do we mean, then, to abolish these? Yes, if the welfare of society and of its dependent children can be better served by the home plan, as now seems very evident. I am concerned for children, unfortunate little souls, and not for property that might be used for their shelter. The question is not what is our duty to brick and mortar, but to babies, to boys and to girls.

The plan generally adopted in this country for the care of the dependent children in the early stages of organized philanthropic effort was to commit them to the almshouses. This plan is still in vogue in a few States that have the mark of the Middle Ages upon them. The children's institutions followed, and that was a long

step forward; but, as it now appears, it was a transitional step that has served its purpose. The institutional stamp has already been fixed upon too many. It is time for it to disappear. Since experience, during the last few years, has demonstrated that the family plan is by far the best and is feasible, and since this is, theoretically, so reasonable, we must declare unconditionally for it as the one that will serve the interests of society best and as destined to displace the institution plan.

The family, especially the well-regulated rural family, fits for life in a more complete sense than the ordinary institution does. The possibilities for good in the family plan are beyond all computation, while in the institution the possibilities for misguided effort are just as great. The home develops self-reliance; the institution, dependence. The home is calculated to develop fairly correct views of life; the institution, inadequate and distorted views. Both the home and the institution can supply intellectual, moral, and religious training. The tendency of the home is to give these in fairly well-balanced proportions; while the danger in the institution is that an undue amount of the religious instruction shall be given, which with children produces weaklings. They are often taught too much about heaven and too little about earth. The very atmosphere is such as to cultivate dependence in children. Shelter is provided, food is secured and prepared, clothing, good beds, and warmth are theirs, and generally without a thought or an effort on their part. Put an apron on a fourteen-year-old boy that has been thus coddled and cared for, as I have seen it done, and then teach him that a kind God will take care of him under all circumstances, and you have made a thing that has no place among the sturdy boys who are the product of good rural homes, who in a thousand ways develop self-reliance, and are in constant contact with nature and their fellows, trying to establish themselves in the rivalry among boys, and so make themselves able, when grown, to make places for themselves among men. One good, sturdy boy, the product of a country home, would walk through a whole phalanx of boys brought up with aprons on in an institution.

The means and methods to be employed in home-finding need no extended statement here. It of course requires receiving and distributing stations, with an adequate force of agents in the field. Some existing institutions that are best adapted for these purposes

could be converted into such stations. All of them ought to be equipped for the proper care of the children brought to them, since it will always be necessary for some of them to be retained weeks and even months while suitable homes are being found for them. All stations intended for the reception of boys and girls old enough to receive instruction ought also to be equipped with the necessary facilities for giving such instruction as they need. But the idea must be kept distinctly and constantly in mind that these stations are only temporary stopping-places, and not homes where boys and girls are to be reared and educated.

An adequate force of agents must be at work in the field where the homes are to be sought. Their duties shall be to find and investigate homes, and arrange for placing the children in such homes as will provide the right environment for them. The duties of the agents must not stop here. They must make periodical visits, frequent at first, to see whether the children already placed are being properly cared for, educated, and trained in moral life. If they find they are not, the agents ought then to make a change. The legal adjustment of these matters must be such that the State through its agents in the field shall retain control over the children. If, however, after a sufficient acquaintance of the family with the child and of the agents with the family, the family desires to adopt the child, and the agents are satisfied that such an arrangement is best for the child, the State ought then to establish the legal relation of parent and child between them. This is the most desirable result, and it can be secured with a very large number of the younger children.

What is known as the boarding-out plan, among other important advantages, has this,— that it leaves the control where it ought to be. If the State pays the child's board, it must control the child; and this control by some one interested in the child's welfare is absolutely essential to the best results. Another great advantage of the boarding-out plan is that it insures enough homes for all dependent children, since without the incentive of compensation it might be difficult sometimes to secure enough homes. All details of method must be worked out according to circumstances in different parts of the country.

Thus far our discussion has proceeded accepting things as they are, accepting existing social and industrial conditions that produce dependent children by the thousand every year. We have said what

we think is the duty of society to these children, both for the children's sake and that of society. A very important question, though a little apart from our main discussion, is, What is the duty of society toward these social and industrial conditions? Philanthropic effort ought not to be content with caring for dependants any more than a board of health ought to be content with caring for the victims of small-pox. Just as their most vigorous efforts are directed toward the prevention of small-pox, so philanthropic effort ought to be directed with just as great vigor toward the prevention of dependants.

There will always be children dependent through misfortune, but these are the minority; while the majority, and perhaps the great majority, are so through the ignorance, shiftlessness, or immorality of their parents. This majority are born out of wedlock or in wedlock and poverty together. Has society any right of control over these conditions that produce this large majority? Most assuredly, it has. So every man will say who is not so thoroughly imbued with the individualistic spirit that has cursed the past that he thinks the State must not in any case interfere with individual liberty. It is a rational sociological principle that, in any high and general development of society, individual liberty must end where general welfare begins. And it matters not whether this individual liberty is concerned with the drink habit, with criminal practices, or with the relations of the sexes. The more practical phase of the question is not whether society has any right of interference and control over these conditions, but, Through what means and methods can it secure this interference and force this right?

The State has already assumed the right of declaring who shall be husband and wife, but it has never yet imposed all the conditions upon the establishment of this relation that reason and the welfare of society demand. The only general condition society has yet imposed is one of age. It asks no questions concerning the means of livelihood, the character of the parties, or their physical condition; but it ought to inquire into all these, and demand a standard in each. From any rational point of view it is certainly the right of society to demand, in the interests of general welfare, that the legalized propagation of paupers shall end. It is the right of society to demand, and to use its governmental machinery in putting its demand into execution, that both parties to every marriage shall be sound in

body, and shall have some "gumption," that their habits of life shall be such as to guarantee a fair degree of thrift. I would add, as another condition of marriage, that any clergyman or justice of the peace who, contrary to law, shall perform the marriage ceremony for parties either of whom shall not fulfil these conditions shall be compelled to support all pauper offspring from such marriage.

In determining its marriage laws, society must learn to put into the background every sentimental consideration, and be governed by the same cold-blooded reason that it uses in enacting quarantine laws against leprosy. A very large per cent. of all marriages are the product of mere animal sentiment, with all rationality smothered. Because this is so, the cold composite reason of society ought to determine with merciless severity the conditions of all marriage contracts, and in this way undertake at least to diminish the legalized propagation of paupers.

A careful examination of the bearing of industrial conditions upon our topic would be interesting, but we have refrained from such examination because we feared that a discussion given too much to theoretical preventive methods would prove disappointing.

More can be accomplished toward the alleviation of the poor, through some rational modification of industrial conditions, than by any other possible means. Nearly all that is being done for all classes of poor in the way of furnishing support, either in institution or in private home, tends rather to increase than to diminish poverty. Almost all forms of relief are mere temporizing palliatives, and do not strike at the root of the difficulty. The root of the difficulty is found in our industrial organization. Nature has provided for all. The existing industrial organization is one monstrous monopoly of nature's abundant provision the whole world over. This monopoly establishes between the great majority of the human race, on the one side, and the minority, on the other, the relation of serf to master; and it leaves to the majority absolutely no legal right to live except in the almshouses. This seems like extravagant assertion, and I am sorry I have not time to demonstrate the truthfulness of my assertion. It is the duty of all who labor in the field of philanthropy to study the bearings of industrial conditions upon the phases of life which they are trying to alleviate.

THE INTERFERENCE OF A MUNICIPALITY IN BEHALF OF ITS WARDS.

BY ERNEST P. BICKNELL.

The forces which have wrought so powerfully in recasting our industrial system, with the consequent huddling together of huge populations in contracted areas, have compelled governments to review and revise their rights and duties as related to the individual citizen. In a sparsely populated community the individual may be allowed a freedom in the conduct of personal affairs which in a centre of dense population would be intolerable. All the agencies which make for health and happiness, for misery and death, are intensified by the sun-glass of urban conditions, and are focussed upon the life of the people.

The rapid growth of cities has found us unprepared for the new conditions. We have brought the laxity, the laws, the habits, of the rural neighborhood into the restricted areas of the city. Customs which in other relations were harmless are now found to foster vice or crime. Personal privileges, cherished for centuries, are now become abuses of the rights of others. Disregard of sanitary and hygienic precautions, which in country air and wide spaces was unattended by ill results, now breeds epidemic and death. The adjustment of the life of the individual to these changing conditions is painful, but imperative. It is attended in every movement by opposition, argument, and entreaty, by an appeal to rights, to law, to justice, to humanity; but the succession of the seasons is a law of nature no more inexorable than that which decrees that men must fit their lives to their environment.

Merciful statutory law must from time to time be called upon to protect men from the operation of merciless natural law. Based upon continually changing conditions as such statutory law is, and designed to meet the new demands which from time to time arise, those who are affected by it are slowly coming into a recognition of the right and duty of government to interfere in the social and personal affairs of the individual to a degree which formerly would have been regarded as unreasonable and unjust. That every man is

entitled to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, is now seen to be true only when he can exercise these rights without encroaching upon the rights of others. This principle, clearly understood and accepted, the law-making power becomes most comprehensive, and the responsibilities of those intrusted with that power correspondingly great. The limits of measures which may be lawfully taken to preserve or restrict individual or collective rights must be determined by the wisdom of the law-making body rather than by an absence of power.

Such exercise of this power as has most manifestly encroached on what have been regarded as individual rights has probably taken the form of legislation in behalf of those who, by reason of age or mental infirmity, are unable to protect themselves. Particularly has this been true of laws in which parental rights are involved. Two dominating reasons exist for carrying legislation in behalf of children into the very limits of the family circle. One is the helplessness of the child, its innocence of distinctions between right and wrong, and its extreme susceptibility to moral or bodily harm from influences which it can neither avoid nor control. The other, based upon economic considerations, is the importance to the perpetuity and integrity of our institutions of creating and maintaining a high standard of citizenship.

These reasons so far outweigh the immediate interests relating to parental control and guardianship that they must be given precedence when such control or guardianship is not in accord with them. In pursuance of this principle, many laws have been enacted which have had for their object either the protection of children from those who should be their natural protectors or the supplying of certain essentials to the health and mental and moral welfare of children which, because of the death, neglect, or incompetence of parents, cannot be expected from the natural source. As a rule, these laws have been strongly attacked when proposed, have been strenuously fought in the courts until their soundness and validity have been fully sustained, and then have been accepted by all as wise and humane. Each advance has been small in itself and in accordance with some principle already recognized in previous statutory enactments. By this process, government has gradually assumed such powers and responsibilities in its relations to children that it will be only by the exercise of profound wisdom that it will be able to properly discharge the duties which it has undertaken.

Hosts of questions now crowd forward, and cannot be put away without answer. How far may government properly go in supplying free educational facilities to its children? Shall free education be solely mental and moral, or shall it include the training of the hands? To what extent shall children be compelled to avail themselves of the facilities provided? What restrictions may be properly thrown about child labor? Many children fail to receive proper training or care because parents are indifferent or ignorant. What is the duty of government in such instances? Children, to be healthful and normal, must have pure air, pure water, pure food, sunlight, exercise, and amusement. How far shall government go in assuring these essentials to every child? Here are involved questions of overcrowding in tenements, of the construction and location of tenements, of drainage, ventilation, and water supply, of public playgrounds, of kindergartens, of nurseries. To what extent shall government exercise its power of wresting children from their parents? Shall children be taken from their parents only when their bodies are cruelly treated, or shall cruel treatment of the mind and soul constitute a cause for such action? When children are taken from parents, what degree of responsibility must be assumed for the children so taken?

These questions and others which arise can only be properly answered after a full inquiry into the moral and legal principles involved. If children are to be required to attend school, the municipality is bound not only to provide the schools, but proper books and clothing as well, if the usual private sources of supply fail. If by the prohibition of child labor the support of a person or a family is removed, the government must itself guarantee such support. Do we undertake to assure to every child the blessings of pure air, pure water, pure food, the light of the sun, and an open space for exercise and recreation, then must we also, to be consistent, prepare to take partial or entire control of many affairs hitherto usually or wholly in private hands. The power to seize upon a child and remove it permanently from its parents' control cannot be divorced from a full responsibility for that child's health and future well-being. Can a government afford to assume these powers and responsibilities? Can it afford not to assume them? Every civilized government has fully recognized the principle of interference in behalf of its weaker and less fortunate citizens. That being true, where is the line to be

drawn which separates the area of interference from that of non-interference?

I cannot here take up for discussion the various questions which have been mentioned or which suggest themselves. We have gone so far already in governmental guardianship of the interests of children that we cannot turn back if we would. What remains to be done is to so shape future policies that what we do shall not break down the essential distinctions between what is properly the duty of government and that which belongs clearly to the individual. This is simple in statement, but will not prove simple in practice. There is an almost irresistible tendency to shift upon the broad shoulders of government the burdens which private citizens should bear. It is easier to pay a little more tax and put new duties on the government than to give the time and thought which would enable us to perform the duties ourselves. That this is a short-sighted policy does not need demonstration. Of what avail will it be to develop and organize our country's natural resources if, in so doing, we are leaving to unfit hands the education of those who, after us, will have control of what we have established? I do not believe that we have gone too far in governmental interference in behalf of children. I do not believe we have, with possibly a few rare exceptions, gone far enough. But a tide of sentiment in favor of such interference is rising steadily and rapidly. Its presence is being manifested in a multitude of plans for the care or protection of children in a public or semi-public manner. This is well, provided our enthusiasm does not carry us beyond the bounds of wisdom. Our American pendulum sweeps through a wide arc. The momentum which it has gained in falling from the point of little or no legal interference is in danger of carrying us to a correspondingly hurtful extreme of such interference.

The public mind is ready for further measures in behalf of children. Those who by experience and position are prepared to lead in this direction will have hearty support. With favorable conditions and a growing interest we have now the opportunity to do for friendless and unfortunate childhood throughout the length and breadth of the land almost anything we may advocate. It is pre-eminently a time for seeking wisdom in counsel. It is a time when a few mistakes may undo us on the eve of victory.

WHAT ARE PROPER INCENTIVES TO REFORM?

ABSTRACT OF A PAPER BY T. J. CHARLTON.

At the outset, I ask pardon for referring to boys generically. Whatever I shall say about boys will apply equally to girls.

The first incentive which I shall mention as useful in the work of reformation is the desire for promotion. In the graded schools of the country this is the one incentive which is most used.

During a child's school life this desire to be promoted from one grade to the one next higher, or from the foot to the head of the class, is a strong stimulus. The little boy who, with a bounding heart, hurried home from school to tell his mother that he stood for the first time at the head of his class, illustrates this, even though further inquiry disclosed the fact that there were only two in his class, and on that particular day the other boy had remained at home. It is a very sluggish child, indeed, that is not affected by this incentive.

In the reform schools we should constantly hold up before the boy as an incentive the many promotions which await him who strives to do right. Our entire badge or merit system is based upon the power of this incentive. We find such promotions much stronger than punishments. I prefer a system of records of conduct, so that a boy may have each day or each week or month the delightful feelings of being promoted step by step.

Deprivation of privileges which they have abused is a valuable punishment, and aids to secure wholesome discipline. In some institutions a diet restricted to bread and water is used. There is no doubt but scant and unsatisfactory food and other privations had much to do with the resolution of the prodigal son to go back to his father's house. So it is with a prodigal boy who persists in going wrong. He should feel that he might be enjoying many privileges if he would but give up his evil course. In this connection an incorrigible should be shown what he might be if he would reform. He should look upon the boy who does well and the boy whose deeds are evil. Looking at things thus contrasted has a very wholesome effect.

Inflexible justice is considered essential to a perfect discipline. This is the case in the army; and yet we will agree that the forgiving heart of Lincoln in war days, tempering justice with mercy, had a wholesome effect on the discipline of our army. In dealing with the delinquent, a spirit of forgiveness is often needed. I knew a veteran of the late war who was noted, during the struggle, as the most profane man in the army. After he returned home, he united with a church; but the conditions were that they would forgive him when he happened to utter an oath. In return he pledged himself that he would try to leave off profanity. He made a noble struggle, but now and then he would forget. Still, he averaged well. When he died, every one said, "A truly Christian man has gone."

Dr. Byers, whom you all knew, once told of a prison warden who had had continuous trouble with a certain refractory prisoner. Everything had failed to change his evil course. Finally, the warden enumerated all that had been done, and yet the prisoner was becoming worse and worse. "What can I do to induce you to change your ways?" exclaimed the discouraged warden. "Forgive me," said the prisoner. "I'll do it," said the warden; and from that moment that convict changed his course, and ultimately became a good citizen. Forgiveness has its part in all reformatory work, but it should follow genuine contrition. Every soldier who to-day is serving in our army is stimulated by the laudable ambition to make an honorable record in the service and to secure the promotions resulting. We should organize and manage those under our charge so as to avail ourselves of this strong desire for approbation and promotion. We should never fail to commend good conduct.

Hope may be classed as an incentive to reformation. "Hope springs eternal in the human breast." There are many times when, after a boy has made some feeble attempt to do better and failed, some encouraging words of sympathy and cheer have brought hope back to him; and he has resolved to try again. I recall an incident of a colored boy who for several years had gone from bad to worse. His countenance had acquired a permanent sullen frown. The chaplain, seeing him looking pleasant one day, asked, "What's the matter, Charley?" "I've thrown down the frown, and picked up a smile." From that day on he began his reformation.

There is no doubt but money given as a reward may be made a strong incentive to good conduct. Some of the leading reforma-

tories for young men, such as the one at Elmira, use this as a part of their wage system as a great incentive to good conduct. In our Indiana Reformatory for young men at Jeffersonville each inmate in the highest grade receives 55 cents per day, in the middle grade 50 cents, and in the lower grade 45 cents per day. Extra wages are paid for extra work. On the other hand, all inmates must pay for their own board at the rates of 45 cents a day for first grade men, 40 cents for middle grade, and 37 cents a day for the lowest grade. For medical attention each must pay 10 cents unless the physician excuses him from duty. For all cases of misbehavior, fines are inflicted, as well as for all injuries to clothing or to property. To make sure that these incentives are made effective, every inmate must have a good bank account before he can be released short of the maximum sentence. In the Indiana Reform School for many years we expended $1,000 a year as rewards, but we did not do it as extensively as is now done by this wage system in our great reformatories for young men.

There is no incentive more effective than to hold up to delinquent boys bright examples, for example is better than precept. When our boys go from our control and do well, I encourage them to visit the school again. Words of advice from such boys are golden. I never heard such an address as that recently made by one of our old boys. He had been out of the school eighteen years. In that time he had at all times been an honest laborer. By economy and hard work he had become the owner of a comfortable home. He was the father of an interesting family of children, and was training them in the right way. He told of the honors that had been bestowed upon him by his fellow-townsmen, and yet he was only a plain, hard-working citizen. I have very little faith in speeches holding out to reform-school boys that they will doubtless become governors and presidents. I prefer to hold up to them as model citizens the honest toiler who earns his daily bread by the sweat of his face.

But the strongest incentive to weak and delinquent boys in all reformatories and prisons is the desire to go home. While we may have and do have many who do not have homes, yet we can promise to procure homes for them when they merit them. We should do all we can to develop and strengthen the desire to win an honorable release. I have noticed the life prisoners in prison. While many

of them are well behaved, yet they lack the incentive which, under the indeterminate sentence, animates the others.

I recall the time when in our school to win the honor badge, as we termed it, did not mean release in all cases. I changed it, and now every boy who wins a standing which will entitle him to a trial is sure that he will go home. If he has no proper home, he knows that one will be procured for him. Boys need to be rewarded for good conduct.

I have known persons with the best intentions to offer incentives to boys which resulted very differently from what was intended. One superintendent, to encourage a watchful economy, agreed to pay a nickel per hundred for buttons which his boys might find and bring in to him. He was surprised at the great boxes of buttons that came to this new market. All at once he learned that all garments that went to the laundry were returned buttonless. Coats hung up in the cottages lost their buttons. It is needless to say that he soon suspended such rewards.

In my early experience in reform-school work there were received into our school two boys who were artists in making horse-hair watch-chains. Some of the officers left orders with them, and were to pay a good price. They did not seem to think where the material was to come from. A visit to the stables disclosed whence it came. All the horses had lost more or less of their tails. My own team of horses, which were greatly admired for their long flowing tails, were sadly changed. The manufacture of hair goods was permanently abandoned.

I once had a cottage manager who began to reduce the reports of his boys until they became suspiciously few. I found that he was compromising with them by agreeing to give a certain corporal punishment, and then to take off the report.

I have seen some boys greatly helped by reminding them of their honest and reputable parents. The trouble is that with but a small percentage of our delinquent boys can we use this incentive of honorable parentage.

Pride in honorable ancestry is a wholesome sentiment. I recall a large boy commuted to us from prison. He bore a name that was a highly honored one in our State. I asked him if it was possible that he belonged to that family. "Yes," he replied. "I am the only one of the family that ever disgraced the name." That boy

gave us no trouble. He has become an honor to the name which he bears. The approval of teachers and other good people should be used at all times, but it will not do to imagine that this is a powerful motive. There was once a superintendent of a reformatory who, in a public address, said that no oath was ever uttered in his school. He was asked what incentive prevented more or less profanity. Drawing himself up, in a self-satisfied tone he replied, "The displeasure of the superintendent." While the displeasure of the superintendent may and should have its influence, yet I would not recommend any one to place too much reliance upon it.

We should appeal to boys to do "right because it is right," and not wholly because it is the best policy. There is no doubt but boys are greatly helped by good reading, by good pictures, and by impressing them with useful maxims which teach wholesome lessons. I like to see mottoes on the walls, but it is rarely that these do the good which we imagine. We keep the motto, "Cleanliness is next to godliness" in all our lavatories and bath-rooms, but it would avail nothing if the rule for cleanliness were not at all times enforced.

The highest incentive that can influence old and young is duty. At the memorable battle of Trafalgar the great Nelson signalled to his men, "England expects every man to do his duty." This great motto still inspires the men on every British man-of-war.

We should labor to induce those under our charge to be guided by a sense of duty.

I have great faith in the power of education as an element in reformation with the young. I think that it opens their minds to receive moral truths which they never could have received in the condition they were in, when first admitted. Therefore, I would have the faithful teacher made a great factor in all reformatory work,—not only the teacher of what are known as the common-school branches, but teachers of industrial branches. I have seen scores of boys who could never be reached by precept or otherwise, but who went on and on, from bad to worse, until they started in some industrial course of study where they discovered that they possessed talents for some work. We should avail ourselves of all these helps. A boy should realize that those in charge are looking to his future, and are trying to fit him so he will not be helpless when he is thrown on his own resources.

Religious instruction must never be forgotten as the greatest aid

in reformation. The work of the true chaplain is a great aid. I know that the chaplain's work in our school alone has led scores and hundreds of boys to change their course from evil to good.

Along with religious work I believe that there is one incentive second only to religion, and that is patriotism. Patriotism is love of country, and that implies love of her laws. If we deal with those who have violated law, how can we hope to reform them unless they can be taught respect for the law? No one will obey laws for which he has no respect. Therefore, I would have all institutions teach patriotism. Begin it in the public schools, keep it up in the higher schools and in the colleges. Yes, keep it up in all prisons; for it is needed there more than anywhere else. I cannot conceive of any one who loves his country being a bad citizen.

The properly developed citizen is not the work of a day. He does not spring, Minerva-like, fully armed and equipped from the brain of Jupiter. Good citizens are the growth of long years of training. How important that their hands and hearts be made strong in all these higher virtues that ennoble and adorn human characters!

THE BOY AND GIRL OUT ON FURLOUGH.

BY GRACE JOHNSTON,

STATE AGENT MINNESOTA STATE TRAINING SCHOOL.

The law governing the commitment of boys and girls to the Minnesota State Training School places them under the guardianship of the board of managers during the remainder of their minority. They cannot be committed under the age of eight nor over the age of sixteen. The school is conducted on the grading system; and by continuous good behavior it is possible for a boy or a girl to attain a position in the "Class of Honor"—from which they are eligible to furlough—in a trifle less than a year, although the average length of time it takes is about two years. When, by reason of merit or for some other reason that may appeal to the judgment and discretion of the board of managers, the name of a boy or girl is passed upon for release from the immediate control of the school, such a

release is termed with us a furlough. The furlough is a leave of absence extended during good behavior as long as the good behavior lasts, but terminating when the boy or girl lapses into forbidden ways. The conditions governing it are set forth in what is termed a furlough agreement, which ends in a pledge which must be signed by the boy (our girls as yet have had no written agreement) to the effect that he will honestly comply with the said conditions.

By far the most important work of the State agent is the work done before the boy or girl is allowed to leave the school. The State is clothed with authority to place the child where it will, with or without the consent of the parents or other guardians. It is an authority that brings with it a grave responsibility; for the success or failure, the happiness or the misery, of the young lives thus committed to the guardianship of the State, depends largely upon the use that is made of this power. With us this responsibility is divided between the superintendent, who has a knowledge of the character and natural disposition of the child, and the State agent, whose business it is to have a knowledge of the former surroundings and the present status of the family and friends of the boy or girl. By careful consultation and unbiassed judgment, having in view only the best interests of the child and working together in perfect accord for the one object, it is possible to obtain the very best results. The superintendent is the acting head of the school, the tribunal to which the boys and girls have become accustomed to look for final judgment. There should be no divided authority. The superintendent is still the actual head, even though the children pass from under his immediate control; and the authority of the State agent is a delegated authority, acting during the furlough in place of the superintendent, to whom all facts are reported and by whom the recall to the school is issued, if a recall be necessary. By keeping within the boundaries of one's own position as fully as the children are required to keep within the boundaries of their own, one can compel not only respect, but admiration, affection, and a willing obedience from which the sting of subservience is extracted. To retain the confidence of the children requires genuine sincerity both of word and deed; for children possess an instinct in this regard, and pass judgment upon their elders in more severe and unerring fashion than their elders pass judgment upon them. He who does not recognize this trait in childhood has forgotten his own.

The board having decided that a certain boy or girl may go, the first thing to do is to find out all one can about the particular boy or girl. The record in the school speaks for itself, but is not always an infallible guide; for often an exceedingly good record covers up a calculating politic design which has aimed to be good for the sake of getting out, or, as frequently happens, it is the good showing of a weak character which is good only when removed from temptations and hedged about by limitations and restrictions. On the other hand, a turbulent lad, difficult to handle in the school, may, by possession of the very qualities which cause him trouble in the school, be better able to battle for himself in the outside world, the aggressive and active spirit enabling him to meet and overcome obstacles to which the weaker boy will succumb. To one accustomed to dealing with a large number of children there comes in time a kind of intuition which enables one to "size up" with a tolerable degree of accuracy the kind of a boy or girl one is dealing with.

I always have an interview alone with the boy or girl before I look up the homes or people, and by a few leading questions get as accurate an account as I can of the circumstances, the habits, and the standing of the family, the kind of discipline in vogue there, and what led the boy or girl into the trouble which culminated in their being sent to the school. I think our boys and girls feel that we desire to use our power solely for their good and ultimate happiness. At any rate, their answers to my questions — which are noted in a small book used for later reference — are hardly ever at variance with the real facts in the case.

I like to have them feel that I am working for and with them. I get more light on the best and surest way of helping them from their answers to certain questions put to them than from anything else. After finding out all I can about their home and people, I ask, "If you could go just where you want to go, where would you like to go?" Some of them answer, "Anywhere but home." Others vehemently declare they will never stay anywhere but at their own home. I find out what they have been taught and what they know how to do in the way of work, and then I ask, "If you could do just what you want to do, what would you do?" The answer to this question is often surprising; but I find that nearly every boy and girl has a ready answer,— there is an ambition or a thought that comes readily to the surface when the question is put in that way.

On the principle that "birds of a feather flock together," I jot down the answer to "What boys in the school do you like the best?" or "What girls are your special friends?" and, knowing in a general way whether the boys mentioned or the girls mentioned are of a "tough" character or the reverse, I get a fairly good idea of the natural trend of their dispositions and desires. An interview with the superintendent, the family manager, or their instructor in work, gives me a further knowledge of their character and ability; and then I start out to investigate the home.

Now here is where tact and wisdom are necessary. You can make a stanch friend or a bitter enemy of the family and friends by the way you go about this. As a matter of precaution, I usually make the neighborhood inquiries before I go to the home, so that watchful and suspicious eyes may see that I walk straight away after the interview at the home. None of us like to have people prying into our private affairs and going to friends and neighbors for information. No matter how depraved or worthless the parents may be, I never like to antagonize them, for, even if we exercise the rights we possess, and place the children in better homes than their own, the natural ties hold, to some extent; and I always feel that a victory has been gained if, by an appeal to the good I assume they possess, I can gain the co-operation of even a wicked parent in a plan for the betterment of a child. Of course there are cases where it is not safe for the parent to have any knowledge of the whereabouts of the child; but even then a system of correspondence through the school is often allowed, if the injunction as to elimination of names, place, and address, is strictly followed.

When the home is found to be a proper and safe one, it is a very great help to have a talk with the parents before the boy or girl comes home, in order to explain just what is expected of them under furlough, and to gain the co-operation of the parents with the school. If all recognized authorities work together in harmony, it is easy for the boy or girl to know what and whom to obey; but, when each pulls against the other, the child ends by doing whatever it wishes to do, regardless of any authority.

If the home is manifestly unfit for the child to return to, another and better one must be found; and here, again, the greatest judgment must be exercised. My first care is to get one as far removed from the old home as possible. I will say, in passing, that the

majority of children for whom homes have been found have done better than those who were allowed to return to their own homes. By transferring them to a new environment, all of the old temptations, the well-worn grooves of familiar habit in thought and deed, are removed; and the child is taken at its present worth, which, thanks to the advantages acquired in the school, gives it a standing and value in the community as novel as it is pleasing to them. The feeling of self-respect thus engendered is a very large factor in the future behavior of the child.

A knowledge of previous conditions helps wonderfully in the selection of a home. To find a home with good people, of the same religion,— of the same nationality, if possible,— where the boy or girl will fit in and feel at home, is not always an easy task. I fancy it is much easier in the West than it would be in the East. Where a boy or girl is willing to go into the country, a home is always found for them there. Our farmers are well-to-do; and the difficulty of finding assistance, and the isolation of their homes, make it almost a necessity to treat their help as members of the family. Our younger boys and girls usually receive board, clothes, and schooling in return for their help around the place; but the older ones are paid for their work at current rates.

It is easier to put a boy or girl into a home than to make them "stay put," if they do not like the place. It is useless to force them into places or work they do not like; for it always leads to a violation of the furlough, and defeats the end for which you are striving. If the ambition of the boy or girl is a worthy one, and is reasonable of attainment, I try to get for them what they say they want. Work in which they find pleasure and profit they will nearly always stick to, and that is what we want to encourage. It is a rule with us that some kind of employment — either school or work — must be provided, be ready and waiting for the boy or girl before they leave our school, so that no period of idleness intervenes to undo the work so carefully done in the school. If friends or relatives are unable to find employment, it is the duty of the State agent to find it against the day of departure. The trades taught in our school afford various means of livelihood, by which many of our boys are now earning a good living outside.

All this work is preliminary. The home and the work both having been found, the boy or girl is allowed to leave the school. The

conditions of the furlough have been carefully explained, the pledge has been signed. The agreement is printed, and signed in duplicate. One copy we keep: the other is taken home by the boy for future reference. With a directed postal card in his pocket to mail back as soon as he has reached his destination, the boy is allowed to depart. If he is quite unused to travelling or is very young, the agent usually accompanies him, and always accompanies the girls to their journey's end. If there is a change of cars, for even the older boys matters are so arranged that they will be seen safely aboard the last train they will take, and nearly always some one is notified who will meet them at the other end. This care and attention, which some may think foolish and unnecessary, are always gratefully remembered, I find; and it establishes a cordial feeling at the beginning of the new life.

And now the boy or girl is actually out of the school. By the terms of the furlough they must report in writing to the State agent twice a month for the first three months, once a month after that. A delinquent notice is sent to those not reporting by the tenth of the month; and, if the report is not then forthcoming, it is an indication that something has gone wrong, and they are looked up.

It can readily be seen that, with several hundred children out on furlough all over a large State, no one agent, nor twenty agents, could exercise very much of a personal supervision over them. The preliminary visit of the State agent has been more than simply an investigating tour. Some one or more good people have been seen who have pledged themselves to help the boy or girl in every way in their right endeavor, but, should they get headed wrong or fail in their obligations, to notify the State agent at once. The children are told that some one will report about them, but are not told who the some one is. This knowledge operates as a check upon them, and helps them to be truthful in their own reports. In some cases it is required that their report be countersigned by some responsible person. Those who have taken our homeless children into their homes are required to agree not to discharge them or turn them adrift, but, if the children prove unsatisfactory, to notify the State agent instead of the boy or girl, and the State agent will see that they are taken away. The law gives to the board the right of indenture; but we have used it only in one case, and then the boy ran away from the place, and lost whatever benefit might have accrued from his term of service.

It is impossible to make a furlough that extends over a long period of years as stringent as a reformatory parole that lasts but a stated number of months. As the years pass by, changes will occur in many young lives. Some move from place to place, and the family finally leave the State altogether. In such a case the permission of the superintendent is required before the boy or girl may leave. Letters come to me from all over the Union, and even out of it. These written reports are merely friendly letters, giving an account of themselves, their conduct, and their work. The school-children send their school report cards for inspection, that we may know how they are getting along in school, and if they are regular in their attendance or not. At first I did not attempt to answer these written reports, except when questions requiring an answer were asked; but realizing how cold and unsatisfactory a one-sided correspondence must be, and particularly a compulsory one, I tried various means of acknowledging the letters each month. I have now adopted a circular letter, filled with news of general interest, always having a little good advice tucked in somewhere, in which I take pains to always thank them for their prompt and pleasant attention to their duty in thus writing to me. This letter is mimeographed with but little expense and trouble, and a copy of it is sent to each boy and girl. I sign and direct these letters myself, and add to certain ones whatever of personal interest and advice I think is necessary to their particular case. In this way the correspondence has progressed pleasantly on both sides, and the reports come in with commendable regularity.

Whenever possible, a personal visit is made, particularly to those who are out in homes found for them. Our boys and girls are all forbidden to associate with other graduates of the school, and all correspondence with those remaining in the school is prohibited. This seems a hard condition, especially where a strong friendship has grown up; but we find it is the only safe way to do. Where this rule is ignored, trouble nearly always results.

We have one clause in our furlough agreement which reads in this way: "Should the world prove a hard taskmaster, should misfortune, poverty, or despair overtake you, it is the wish of the management of the school that you shall regard the school as a refuge and a home, a return under such circumstances being considered in no wise discreditable to you. In such a case you will be

entered in honor, and will thereafter be treated as your conduct while in the school shall merit, until such a time as another opportunity can be found for you elsewhere." This invitation has been more generally accepted than would be believed, and it has proved to be the salvation of some of our boys and girls.

Our school is not a prison; and we do not like our boys and girls to feel restricted in the worthy ambitions or usual pleasures and happiness of life because of the furlough, or to feel that their whole youth is mortgaged because of mistakes made in early life. It is true that the furlough is a sword of Damocles to those who hover near the edge of wrong-doing, but it is used for nothing but the benefit of those who are earnestly striving to do what is right. It extends during the minority of every boy and girl.

Since the first of the year three of our girls have married. They married good men, and we are glad of it. It is a little puzzling to know just what attitude to take, however, when they commit matrimony first and notify us of it afterward; but each case is settled on its individual merits,— a thing that cannot always be done inside of an institution. Four of our boys have joined the United States navy; and, when the call came for volunteers for the army, twenty-five of our older boys placed their services and their lives at the disposal of their country. Of this, also, we were glad and proud.

It could hardly be expected that all of our graduates would do well. A strict surveillance is a trifle discouraging in some respects; for we know what our graduates are doing, and we know when they fail to do their part. It is not a case of blissful ignorance, but of practical and often discouraging knowledge. We know that about 80 per cent. of our furloughed boys and girls do well; and we are not wholly discouraged about the delinquent 20 per cent., for often the second or even the third trial proves that the effort that has been made for their reclamation has not been altogether in vain. Our girls have done even better than our boys. They seem to be more influenced by their environment than are the boys. When taken from it, trained to a realization and a liking for better things, and placed in safe and happy homes, as far removed from their old homes and haunts as possible, they seem to do remarkably well. I am not able to fulfil the demands made for girls in localities where some of our girls have been placed.

The happiness and success of those for whom homes have been found have inspired the most forlorn of our children with the belief that somewhere a happy home will be found for them, and it is touching in the extreme to note the confiding faith they have in this happy dream and in those who, they believe, will bring it to pass.

And these children are not to be too harshly judged because of the grave mistakes they have made in the morning of their lives. What can be expected of children

> "Whose blood
> Has flowed through scoundrels since the flood,"

or of those whose childhood has been one long history of neglect and abuse? Their heredity and environment have not been of their own choosing; and, left to it, their fate is a foregone conclusion. In closing, I want to quote the language of a venerable minister, used in an argument on this same subject, which expresses better than I can do so my own belief in the matter: —

"Man," said he, "God's arithmetic is not man's arithmetic: it's bigger. When I was in Canada, a woman, who thought she had cause for gratitude, presented me with a little orange-tree in a tub. She knew that I had lived in California, and she thought I would like to have an orange-tree. I thanked her, of course; but that orange-tree to me was a very pitiful sight. It was thirteen years old, and had never produced an orange; nor had it ever had a blossom. The climate was too cold. It was not the fault of the little tree: it had done well to live. Now you take that same little tree, away back in its infancy or tender youth, and place it in the right soil and climate, and what a tree it would have been, sweet with blossoms, bright with fruit! I could have wept when I looked at the stunted, dwarfed little thing, and thought of the wonderful possibilities which circumstances had so crushed and spoiled. And, if I felt so about a little tree, don't you suppose that an all-merciful Father is going to take into account the helplessness of his children whom heredity and environment have warped and stunted and crushed? And, if fruit or even a blossom is missing on their poor little tree of life, don't you think he will take into account the reason why, and in a different place will give that life a chance to expand and grow? I believe it. God's arithmetic is not man's arithmetic: it's bigger."

THE CARE OF CRIPPLED AND DEFORMED CHILDREN.

BY NEWTON M. SHAFFER, M.D., NEW YORK,

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So far as I can learn, the first effort to afford organized relief to the deformed and crippled among the poor of New York City was made in May, 1863, by the New York Society for the Relief of the Ruptured and Crippled. Under the leadership of Dr. James Knight, its founder, who gathered about him such men as James Lenox, Robert B. Minturn, Robert M. Hartley, John C. Green, Stewart Brown, A. R. Wetmore, Jonathan Sturges, Jas. W. Beekman, John David Wolfe, Henry S. Terbell, and George W. Abbe, the work very rapidly took a prominent place among the great charities of our city. As I had the honor to be connected with the institution when it opened its doors for the reception of patients in the minor capacity of a medical student, and as I was graduated in medicine under its auspices, and filled the position of its first assistant surgeon, I can recall very distinctly the different stages of the development of this great work, and have watched with much gratification its progress and success.

Dr. Knight was a true philanthropist, a genuine friend of the crippled child, of more than ordinary versatility in adapting mechanical means to pathological ends in the treatment of the deforming diseases of childhood, and an almost unrecognized and neglected pioneer in the early work of what is now known as modern orthopædic surgery. In many respects he was a great man, and his self-sacrificing devotion to the work he founded has never met the recognition it deserves. I desire to place on record my humble appreciation of his unselfish efforts to relieve human suffering, and to emphasize the fact that it was owing to his energy and devotion that New York City first recognized the necessity of extending the hand of relief to the poor cripple.

Early in his work, and before the institution moved into its present ample hospital building, Dr. Knight recognized the importance of

both mental and physical training as an important adjunct to the medical part of the work. He instituted a class in light gymnastics and calisthenics; and instruction, both religious and secular, was made part of the daily life of the patient. This work has been maintained since Dr. Knight's death.

The next important movement in the direction of the care of crippled and deformed children occurred in 1866, under the auspices of the New York Orthopædic Dispensary and Hospital. Its founders were Theodore Roosevelt and Howard Potter, who, with the assistance of Dr. John T. Metcalfe and Dr. Cornelius R. Agnew, secured the co-operation of Dr. Charles Fayette Taylor in forming this organization. Commencing simply as a dispensary, and with a board of trustees which comprised, among others, and including the founders, James Brown, William E. Dodge, James Boorman Johnston, Robert Lenox Kennedy, John L. Aspinwall, David Dows, Allen Campbell, Roswell D. Hitchcock, and Robert Winthrop, it soon became a factor in the charitable world, and rapidly assumed an enviable position, both as regards its methods and its work.

The genius of Dr. Taylor in designing apparatus for the relief and cure of deformity made him a benefactor of his race, and his early retirement from active practice, through ill health, was a loss to the medical profession.

Mental training has always been a feature of the work in the wards of the Orthopædic Hospital. At present two teachers are employed,—one in kindergarten work for the younger patients, the other in giving regular lessons to the older children.

As the writer stepped, so to speak, from a position in the Ruptured and Crippled Hospital to an almost similar one in the Orthopædic Hospital, and as his connection with the latter covers more than a quarter of a century, it is with peculiar satisfaction that he has watched the great growth of both of these institutions, which have done more than any other institution in the country to afford relief to the crippled poor.

The next important step in this work of caring for deformed children occurred in 1872, when St. Luke's Hospital, attracted by the work of the Orthopædic Hospital, invited one of the surgeons of the latter institution to become an active member of its medical staff, creating for him the office of orthopædic surgeon. The orthopædic service of St. Luke's Hospital has since been one of its distinctive

features, and it was the first large general hospital to recognize orthopædic surgery as a specialty.

Soon after this event there was a pretty general recognition of the necessities of the crippled and deformed on the part of many medical institutions. The New York Hospital, the Roosevelt Hospital, the Vanderbilt Clinic, the Post-graduate Hospital, the Polyclinic Hospital, St. Mary's Hospital, and others opened their doors to crippled children, and organized either an outdoor or an indoor service, or both, for the treatment of the deformed.

In other large cities, and in some smaller ones, the growth of the movement to afford relief to the crippled and deformed has been very gratifying. In Boston Dr. Buckminster Brown organized a small hospital for the relief of cripples before New York recognized Dr. Knight's effort, and now the Children's Hospital of Boston is a model in its orthopædic work. In Philadelphia the University of Pennsylvania has an elaborate and well-equipped orthopædic dispensary and hospital, founded largely by Dr. A. Sydney Roberts; and it also has other well-known institutions where the crippled and deformed poor are cared for. In Chicago, Baltimore, Rochester, Buffalo, St. Paul, Indianapolis, and elsewhere the crippled and deformed are well provided for; and all, or nearly all, this advance in the use of modern methods of caring for the deformed poor may be traced to New York, and to the personal influence of four great men,— namely, Dr. James Knight, Dr. Charles Fayette Taylor, Dr. Lewis A. Sayre, and Dr. Henry G. Davis, who revolutionized the treatment of joint and spinal diseases, and whose originality and genius made him the father of American orthopædic surgery.

It may, I think, be taken for granted, from a medical and surgical aspect, that the care of the crippled and deformed has been very generally recognized during the past quarter of a century the world over; though, strange as it may seem, the medical profession are still in many important medical centres, and especially abroad, unwilling to grant to orthopædic surgery the status it deserves. There still clings to the mechanical treatment of deformities in some minds the feeling that it is *infra dignatatem*,— that to manipulate apparatus, or to undertake to perform the necessary mechanical operations for treating deformity, is, in some obsure way, outside of, strictly speaking, surgical lines. And while this foolish prejudice is becoming modified, and especially so in New York, there are to-day, in some

large cities, prominent surgeons who habitually refer patients with deformity to some commercial instrument maker, whose knowledge is limited to the shop in which he works, and whose education is far from equipping him to give the patient the relief which he has a right to demand. The day is coming when the instrument maker will occupy the same relation to the surgeon that the pharmacist does to the physician, when a "brace" for deformity will be a written "prescription" of the surgeon, and when the surgeon will know what is needed for the relief or cure of deformity, and when he will rely upon his own experience and knowledge rather than upon the ignorant advice and co-operation of a purely mercantile class.

Hence, in speaking of the care of crippled children, I desire to emphasize the statement that we need better educational facilities in our colleges for teaching orthopædic surgery, just as good, indeed, as are now given for other departments. Every medical college should have an orthopædic laboratory, just as there are laboratories for other necessary medical instruction. The student, under the direction of his teacher, should be taught, not that Smith's brace for club-foot or Jones's splint for hip disease are used in the treatment of these conditions, but he should rather be educated in the principles underlying their application, and the student should be made proficient in their use. We all know how extensive and prolonged is the technical education demanded of those who, for example, are educated in the construction of a railroad bridge. The mechanical principles involved in the construction of a brace for spinal disease or club-foot are certainly not less important, and yet strictly speaking there is no technical education in any of our medical schools upon these points. The next progressive step in the surgical care of deformities will be to establish a mechanical laboratory where the practical use of apparatus in the treatment of deformities may be intelligently taught in our medical colleges. Still, we all recognize how much has been accomplished since the pioneer institution has pointed out the way. The condition of the crippled and deformed has advanced in many important respects during the past thirty-five years. It rests with an organized body like that which I have the honor to address to study the problems and advance the interests of those who, if unrelieved, must become a burden upon the State, or at least be hopelessly relegated to the non-producing class.

We must all recognize the fact that the average cripple needs

much time for treatment, and that the period at which the most that can be done is at an early age, certainly before adolescence. There are some conditions, like knock-knee, bow-leg, and club-foot, which may sometimes demand the direct (operative) surgical method, and which may not therefore require a long detention in a hospital. But many of the deforming diseases of childhood — for instance, Potts's disease of the spine (hunchback), hip disease, infantile paralysis etc., those which are the most disabling and the most chronic — are dependent upon causes which the knife cannot always reach. They demand, many times,— especially those dependent upon tuberculosis, — years of active mechanical treatment, not, however, in bed, but in portative apparatus which permits of gentle outdoor exercise. The question of education, or, indeed, of suitable mental occupation, during this period of enforced mechanical treatment and prolonged convalescence, is a most important one. Many orthopædic hospitals have made systematic education a feature of their work, but much more remains to be done.

The medical and surgical treatment of the physical ills of the body should always be supplemented by a similar effort to educate the mind of the cripple, so that, when he is cured, he may meet his more fortunate fellows on an equal footing. But there are some deformities which are practically incurable, just as there are congenital deficiencies of the human frame which art may minimize, but science can never replace. This claim has not received the attention it deserves in this country. As Dr. Augustus Thorndike, of Boston, in an article, "The Compensatory Education of Cripples," read before the New England Branch of the American Association for the Advancement of Physical Culture, and about to be published in the *Quarterly Journal of Physical Culture*, says : —

> There should be three sides to all education,— mental, physical, and industrial ; yet many of the homes and schools for cripples to-day confine their attention to only one side. There is no class of children more likely to be benefited by careful physical training than children left with a weak or shrivelled leg or arm as the result of infantile paralysis or chronic joint disease.

In Boston, under the auspices of Augustus Hemenway, Arthur A. Carey, E. Pierson Beebe, Miss Judith D. Beal, Joseph S. Bigelow, F. J. Cotting, E. H. Clement, Dr. Edward H. Bradford, Dr. Augus-

tus Thorndike, Dr. R. W. Lovett, Dr. E. G. Brackett, and others, an Industrial School for Crippled and Deformed Children has been organized, and has been in successful operation for three or more years. Dr. Bradford, in his report for the trustees, says: —

> It should be the work of an industrial institution for cripples to train pupils for an occupation suitable for each individual case, and to furnish aid in finding work for those who may be capable of doing excellent work, but who by this infirmity are unable to solicit work.

It is not within the limits of this short sketch to detail all the admirable work done in this institution, whose patients, many of them, are still under careful orthopædic supervision, while being taught on the plan as outlined above. In many instances a congenital defect makes ordinary treatment useless. Among the inmates of this excellent institution is one, for example, who, having no arms, has learned to do typewriting with his toes.

In Copenhagen there is a Society for Cripples and Invalids which has both hospital and dispensary departments. During 1895 there were treated by this society: paralytics, 177; those lacking one hand or a portion thereof, 117; other cripples, 119; total, 373. The following trades are taught: for men and boys, cabinet-making, basket-making, wood-carving, turning in wood, shoemaking, and brush-making; for women and girls, hand weaving, plain needlework, and dressmaking.

In Sweden and Norway there are four schools. Very much the same work is done in these schools as in the Copenhagen school. Special mechanical devices are used to enable paralytics to hold and work with various tools; and some pupils are even taught to work with their teeth, etc.

In various parts of Europe institutions of this kind exist; and their usefulness, especially in Italy, where deforming and disabling diseases are frequent, must be apparent. And among the many I might cite as having come under my own observation in this country, and as reported in Dr. Thorndike's most excellent and exhaustive paper, is the Daisy Field Hospital and Home, located in Englewood, N.J., where children are taught to wash and iron their dolls' clothes, to sew, to embroider, to make candy, canned fruit, etc., as well as to read and write; while at Philadelphia, at the

Home of St. Giles the Cripple, basket-making and carpentering are regularly taught.

This necessarily hasty and imperfect review shows America to be much behind Europe in the matter of industrial schools for cripples. It should not be so. In connection with every home and hospital where cripples are treated the physical, mental, and industrial training should accompany the medical and surgical treatment, whenever the combination is practicable, just as the moral and adjusted religious training should enter into the school life of such societies.

Early in the history of the New York Orthopædic Dispensary and Hospital, in 1871, a system of outdoor visitation was inaugurated, it being recognized that much could be done if the interest of the patients was kept alive by periodical and friendly visits of a corps of visitors. This work was at first undertaken by a corps of lady visitors. Many patients not eligible for hospital care, and yet demanding minor but essential attention at home rather than the skilled professional attendance of a hospital, were reached in this way; and much good was accomplished. This work became such an important feature of the outdoor work that, when it outgrew the ability of the ladies to meet the demand, one and, later on, two surgeons have been employed to do this service. This work supplements the hospital service greatly; and many patients, who might otherwise have relapsed after their discharge from the hospital, have been kept on the way to ultimate recovery.

Mr. C. Loring Brace, the secretary of the Children's Aid Society, writes me as follows regarding the Henrietta Industrial School at No. 224 West 63d Street, under the direction of the Children's Aid Society: —

> Our attention was called to the number of crippled children living in tenement houses who, because of the poverty and shiftlessness of their parents, were growing up almost entirely neglected. We determined to establish a class for these children in one of our schools as an experiment; and I think, when you see it, that you will agree that it is very successful. We purchased a wagonette; and the children are brought to school in the morning and taken home in the afternoon by our teacher, receiving a lunch at the school. As we expected, we found children of all ages absolutely ignorant, and we have undertaken to teach them according to their needs; and it is possible that later on we may also teach them trades, so that they may be self-supporting. Different heights of tables, chairs, and all

descriptions of reclining chairs, etc., are necessary in such a class. It is the duty of the teacher also to wash the children and rearrange their braces, etc., and advise with the parents regarding the children and to be helpful in whatever way is possible. Especially it is the duty of the teacher to induce the parents to take the children to clinics and dispensaries for medical help.

Our industrial schools are partly supported by public funds through the Board of Education, and partly by contributions of charitable people; and the schools are under our oversight, but subject to the supervision of the superintendents of the Board of Education. This arrangement allows of much more individual care and much better acquaintance with the needs of these neglected little ones than if such a school were entirely under the charge of public authorities. The effort has been so successful that we propose to establish other classes like this one in other tenement districts, as means permit.

I visited this school with Mr. Brace, and found twenty-eight children with various deformities, all of whom were receiving instruction; and all were happy in their work. They belong to a class which cannot be reached except by some organized body like the Children's Aid Society. Neglected at home, rejected by the public schools, incapacitated by physical deformity, and unable to care for themselves, this work supplies a very urgent need in the intelligent care of the crippled and deformed; and it must commend itself to all who are interested in this class of relief. As an aid to the outdoor departments of the various institutions designed to relieve the poor cripple, it is a necessity. I trust this school may be duplicated many times in different parts of the city and in different parts of the country at large.

Turning from this interesting and instructive side of the dispensary work, we may now consider a most important phase of hospital labor.

In a hospital devoted to the care of chronic deformities in childhood, the wards, after a time, become almost hopelessly encumbered with convalescent patients, who need only a minimum amount of attention, but who disbar the more acutely suffering from receiving the benefit of skilled professional care. In my own work I have often been confronted with a problem like this. A child with, say, hip disease or spinal disease, is nearly well. Perhaps the patient has been an inmate of the hospital for three or four years. But he has no suitable home to go to, or perhaps, in effect, no home at

all. If the patient is discharged, he is certain to lack even the slight attention which is necessary to keep the apparatus applied, and which is demanded to secure the best attainable result. If the patient be retained, a bed is occupied which is urgently demanded by an acutely suffering child with, perhaps, the same disease. What shall we do? On the one hand we cannot make a "home" of a hospital; and, on the other hand, if the patient is discharged, he is almost certain to relapse. Too frequently the patient is discharged to make room for another, with the hope that a relapse, after all, may not occur. But it is all wrong.

The solution of this problem, it seems to me, is to have a country home, not too far removed from the city dispensary and hospital, where, with occasional professional visits, and with specially trained nurses in charge, the necessary medical supervision can be maintained, and the mental, physical, and industrial training can be pursued, and the climatic treatment can be made to supplement the efforts of the surgeon.

A strictly dependent, and even to-day a much-neglected, class is being only half cared for by the excellent medical institutions established for its relief. The educational and charitable systems of the State should be adapted to meet the demands of this class of crippled and deformed as fully as are those for the deaf, the dumb, the blind, or the insane. And this is true from a medical standpoint also. A child with a curable deformity demanding prolonged treatment should be treated as well as taught until he is fully recovered, and not, when convalescence is fairly established and he is sure with proper care to recover, be sent out of the hospital to relapse, after a few weeks or months, and to become ultimately a more than useless member of society, perhaps a permanent burden upon the State.

CRIPPLED AND DEFORMED CHILDREN.

BY DR. W. B. PLATT, BALTIMORE, MD.

In the wards of the Robert Garrett Hospital for Children in Baltimore we have treated during the past five years over eleven hundred children suffering with various diseases. About one-third of that number were in the hospital for the treatment of some disabling deformity; spinal caries, hip-joint disease, "white swelling," and club-foot being the most frequent. This is in addition to something over eleven thousand visits made to the dispensary connected with the hospital.

Every one of these diseases, as long as it is progressive, disables the patient. He becomes temporarily dependent upon others, often beyond the time when he might be earning the meagre living which suffices for the laboring classes. If his disease or deformity is not cured, he frequently becomes a permanent charge upon the taxpayers of the State.

The direct annual cost of a patient at the public charge is not less than $80 per year for proper care. The real loss is far greater than this, since we must consider the value of his labor to the State, which is entirely lost, and the value of the labor of those who are employed in caring for him, and who would otherwise be adding to, and not consuming, the resources of the State. Apart from the standpoint of political economy, the crippled and deformed should especially appeal to the good offices of the State as among the most promising of all its wards.

The great majority of these patients are children, with the possibilities of a good or evil career still open; and the direction of their course is determined by the attitude of the public toward them. If early and proper attention be given, a good subject may result; if not, probably a pauper, perhaps a criminal.

During the period they are under hospital observation they may be brought under good moral influences with great ease, and taught the excellence of earning their own support, the beauty of truth for its own sake, the meanness of lying and deception, and the desirability of personal cleanliness.

These things may be taught so as to leave an indelible impression with practical results.

All kinds of people ought not to have access to dependent children in public institutions. A chosen few, blessed with tact, character, and inherent goodness, should have the entire supervision of such instruction, after which the catechism may be added, but not before.

The well-meant efforts of religious teachers is supposed to comprehend all these; but the practical results show them to be ineffective by themselves in making self-supporting, self-controlled, and respectable citizens. The State should provide special means for educating the crippled and deformed, who are necessarily unable to keep up in their studies with healthy children, although they are able to go about to some extent. This should be done by a corps of paid visiting teachers, to give such instruction as these children are able to receive while still in the hospital undergoing treatment.

In this way the two years or less which are spent in institutions for treatment might be much less an absolute loss of time than it is at present. The younger children could all be taught to read and write, and the older ones learn the rudiments of accounts, taught sewing, typewriting, shorthand, and telegraphy,— sedentary occupations for which they are best fitted by reason of their physical disability. A most important item is some provision by the State for orthopædic appliances; and a sum not to exceed $20 per year for two years should be allowed for each patient, to be drawn upon by proper vouchers, to provide such apparatus and appliances for the treatment of their deformities, and for the necessary repairs which must be made.

XIII.

Delinquent Children.

THE DUTY OF THE STATE TO DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

ABSTRACT OF ADDRESS, BY P. CALDWELL,

SUPERINTENDENT LOUISVILLE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL OF REFORM.

The separation of the delinquent from the dependent child, for purposes of classification under existing plans of this Conference, I must confess involves some difficulty to me. I have accustomed myself to regard the child generally classed as delinquent as singularly and pitifully dependent. I have had many nominally dependent children under my care, who possessed all the characteristics of the so-called delinquent.

If there be such a difference between these two classes of children as to cause this Conference to consider them under two separate heads for public discussion, is it not important and natural to ask, What is the difference? Is the difference one of months or years, or is it only a legal one, or is it a physical or a moral difference? When the State puts the child into the scales, what is it that turns the balance, and marks the one a delinquent and the other a dependent child?

I do not hold childhood or youth responsible for its moral condition unless it has had the advantage of proper moral direction. An educated conscience must exist as a condition precedent to the condition of delinquency.

Coincidentally, a baby prince and a gutter child are born. What grand possibilities are embraced in these unshaped characters! They know nothing experimentally of the evils of sin or blessedness of virtue. In their uncorrupted innocence they stand for all we here below ever have of heavenly foretaste. The one is a child ar-

rayed in raiment of exterior loveliness, the other a little neglected urchin of the gutter. How disposed we are to bestow admiration on the tinsel and contribute our share to the neglect of the neglected! Take that child for a moment from the hands of its white-capped nurse and uplift the other from the gutter, with sweet tenderness of touch and word, and place them side by side, and you shall surely see a heavenly likeness of mutual innocence. Who shall nominate the line of division between two such children in their ultimate relation to society? The one returns to the care of its nurse, the other to the neglect of which it is the victim. The nurse and parents, with such time as they can spare from important social functions, care for the one. Who cares for the other? Who should care? Surely, the aggregated assemblage of individual units which constitute society. Does it care? If at all, quite inadequately.

Meet the two children presently, and you shall see a shocking and startling change of conditions. The one, with nurse still attending, will be a goody-goody little fellow; and the other, despoiled of all those precious Heaven-bestowed endowments which are so essential to a career of future usefulness and prosperity, is now a veritable little tough of the slums, who, in defiant protest against non-understandable differences, snatches an apple from the fruit-stand, and runs off with it into the arms of a policeman, and presently to the reform school. Where was the gutter child's nurse during all the time leading up to this event? Oh, it was there all the time, there in its character and title as a State,— a State preferring to await opportunity to punish rather than embrace a chance of prevention.

And so, as the separating years between innocence and maturity elapse, the one naturally drifts into college, and the other quite as naturally into the reform school or the penitentiary. And then people begin to care, and organize themselves into societies for his scarcely possible reformation.

They are the same people who passed him by in the street with supreme non-recognition when, as a toddler, he dabbled his little feet in the gutter with a larcenous intention against the apple-basket of the grocer across the street. Oh, why cannot the world awake to the claims of childhood? The world needs good men and good women so much. We have the material for their development always with us. Why, then, can we not have universal and con-

centrated efforts for the protection of all children by the State, when neglected by natural guardians?

The problem of the delinquent child will only be really solved when organized society is taught to understand that actual cash economy, wholly apart from moral considerations, is better achieved by the expenditure of one hundred dollars for a child's intellectual and moral betterment than by the direct and indirect outlay of thousands for its detection and punishment.

No person practically familiar with criminal statistics will be found to maintain that either the reform or suppression of the vicious bears any reasonable ratio to the lavish expenditures annually made for these purposes, or that attained results by any means approximate the possible ones.

In whatever measure this discrepancy between effort and achievement exists, statesmanship has failed in its most important direction.

Since the combined police, judicial, and correctional systems, each sustained by all the wealth and power of the State, fail to accomplish much more than the overcrowding of rapidly multiplying prisons, penitentiaries, workhouses, and reformatories, it is evident that they alone are unequal to the great social problem. Where, then, are we to seek for the point of fatal weakness and deficiency?

To my mind, the best, most needed, and effective remedy is well-considered and wisely executed measures to properly control and direct the training of juveniles evidently or probably destined to criminal courses through vicious inheritance, environments, and lack of suitable guardianship.

The primary line of endeavor must certainly be with neglected and evil-associated children. No student of penology will deny that, while merchants and mechanics, inventors and scholars, bankers and doctors, lawyers and preachers, may find their way into prisons, they are mainly tenanted by the offspring of the slums, the recruiting ground and training place of all sorts of vice.

The world to-day needs a mighty apostle of the gospel of child-saving,— John the Baptist, crying in the wilderness, with a purpose and a power to teach the people that the cost of child-saving, however great, is an investment at compound interest, continuing through all coming time. Society must be taught that the comprehensive, all including care of its youth is the permanent means, by which alone its well-being and general interest can be secured.

While I believe heredity, of both moral and physical traits, to be a fact, I think it is unjustifiably made a bugaboo to discourage efforts at rescue. We know that physical hereditary tendencies can be neutralized and often nullified by proper counteracting precautions. How much more possible, then, to conquer or change inherited predispositions to evil, when we consider that such earnest and judicious endeavor must, in such large measure, enjoy the blessing and direction and the stimulating influence of the Divine, the author of all good and the mighty to save from evil!

At the inception, adequate child-saving preventive work seems an enormously costly undertaking; but there can be no doubt it is within practicability, and the cost, with the need for it, would constantly diminish. It seems clear to me that, besides purging of the present hideously diseased body politic, the general financial salvage of such work done through one or two generations would infinitely repay any original expenditure, however great, to any State or community. Thoughtful men will be modest how they pronounce on the complicated machinery of child-saving institutions. Local circumstances and conditions must modify any plan worthy of general adoption.

Every delinquent child is a defrauded child. It has been despoiled of its natural birthright,— the right of being well bred and well taught.

The delinquent child, launched upon life with no other training than vicious and corrupt environments, its first sound an oath, its lullaby an obscene song, is more hopelessly handicapped than would be a rower who, having entered upon a test of speed, should be required to reach the goal in a craft without oars or rudder.

Every delinquent child of the street is a living indictment of society's neglect and indifference; and, when he becomes old enough to realize the full consequence of his neglect, it cannot be surprising that he should feel justified in warring against his kind by way of getting even. It is not in human nature to be in harmony with those who neglect its rights and disregard its best interest. Such a spirit as this will ever tend to loosen the foundation of any State government. It is the wind which produces the whirlwind.

Starting with the primary principle that, given proper mental and moral training, the average child will grow up into the respectable and industrious citizen, we must regard those things which make

against such conditions and results as demanding immediate determination and efficacious remedy, if need be, of the most heroic kind. The indisputable truth of this conclusion constitutes an arraignment of society for the final responsibility of the ignorance and juvenile viciousness which are so lamentably and increasingly prevalent, since the State controls, or should control, the parents through its law-making and executive power, while it may rightfully assume the custody of any individual, child or adult, when its own or the public good demands it.

The law provides for the punishment of the citizen who breeds or harbors, without isolation, a bad dog or other vicious beast; and the justice of the provision has universal indorsement. Childish victims of ignorance, indifference, and neglect, have most of the dangerous characteristics of the beast, only intensified by their human intelligence and the deepest cunning and ingenuity in evil, which finds its highest development in depraved humanity.

If a man deserves punishment for subjecting his neighbor to the risk of injury by a ferocious animal, how much more capable and deserving of punishment is he if he wilfully throws upon the community a progeny who, throughout their own and their descendants' lives, will be menacing to the persons and property of their neighbors!

It should be made a crime of no trifling grade, and its detection and punishment absolutely inevitable, to be the responsible guardian of any child of school age without school advantages, or who should be found in such moral state or surrounding as would indicate wilful failure to properly guard it against depraving examples and influences. Not only should exemplary punishment be provided for such cases, but they should be discovered by a perfect system of State or city supervision of every step in the moral, mental, and physical education of both sexes.

Extirpate criminal-making conditions and evil agencies, and the necessity and expense for punishment of criminals will be reduced to the minimum in a world which has not yet reached the millennium.

Without questioning the more or less powerful influence of heredity, but regarding it as an element which can be eliminated within a couple of generations, it may be broadly claimed that habitual, persistent, and therefore the most dangerous classes are the logical product of depraving environments and atrocious neglect during years of childhood and youth. Almost all crime in the long,

black narrative of human guilt, not ascribable to this source, is comparatively isolated and singular, and may be traced, in a great measure, to sudden impulse and extreme heat of passion.

Why, then, should it be deemed impossible to practically limit criminality to this class, and thereby enormously reduce the number of law-breakers? Is not the conclusion a reasonable one — that the concentration of effort and expenditure in the redemption and protection of childhood from vicious influences and surroundings, and their efficient training for usefulness and self-support, would afford a reliable and economic solution of this problem of pregnant consequences? The fact is, there is not a single power within the average child, if taken at an early age, that correct and proper training will not penetrate and grasp. It will penetrate the young heart as the sun penetrates the well-cultivated soil of the husbandman, germinating the seed which he has committed to its keeping. Right moral training by precept, and largely by example, touches the better self of the child, and draws forth the latent energies into new and perfect forms of life. The hand must not be made skilled at the expense of the intellect, nor intellect developed at the expense of the heart. We must not lose sight of the fact that the lowest degree of moral corruption may coexist with the highest point of manual and intellectual training.

Independency demands a skilful hand; and it requires a trained intellect to grasp moral truth, and a cultivated moral self to apply it to every-day life. Without this threefold training the child has no balance of power, no true idea of life, no substratum of practical goodness. It moves, not like the bird which soars, but like the loose feather, the sport of every wind. It gyrates, but cannot fly.

Efficient efforts at rescue should be, to the minutest detail, thorough; and the original cost be without any other limit than intelligent disbursement for the most certain and perfect achievement of the object in view. Instead of figuring how much the children can be made to earn and how little each child can be made to cost, the aim must be to give them the greatest possible advantage to acquire earning ability for the future. Let them be absolute social charges and burdens during the training time, if need be, in order that they may become valuable elements of enduring wealth and usefulness during the years to follow. We carefully train our domestic animals for the several sorts of usefulness for which they

are destined and best fitted, nor can any one be found so unreasonable as to expect or exact such service without proper early training of the beast. It is only children we hold to a stern accountability for not becoming honest, industrious citizens, fitted for the great duties of life, without any reasonable measure of the requisite education to that end.

Without proper training and a fair chance in life, which the State, if no one else, is bound to secure for him, no boy, however good his natural bent may be, can be regarded otherwise than as a prospective candidate for the penitentiary.

With equally stable foundation of moral principle and self-helpful, practical knowledge, the average child may be safely trusted to work out the problem of his own honorable maintenance and ultimate salvation. Without these he can only accomplish this by a miracle. When stringent legislation shall compel parents and guardians to do their whole duty under pain of severe penalties, and when there shall be rigid supervision of the State and adequate provision made by it for this transcendently important need, then will come the dawning of a new era. No man will be able to plead ignorance or helpless, unavoidable destitution in extenuation of wrong-doing. In that day violation of law will be confined to impulse, passion, or innate depravity. In that time legislators may appropriately provide for the permanent isolation of the really vicious; and society, as a whole, will have reached a nearly ideal state of natural morality.

JUVENILE DELINQUENTS:

THEIR CLASSIFICATION, EDUCATION, MORAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

ABSTRACT OF PAPER BY JAMES ALLISON,

SUPERINTENDENT OF THE HOUSE OF REFUGE, CINCINNATI, OHIO.

Three classes of children arouse the sympathy of society, and reach out for its protective and fostering care. They present claims which rest upon some deficiency in personality or environment. Because the individual in question starts in the struggle for existence handicapped, serious dangers threaten him, and mischievous evils menace society. In the name of humanity or for purposes of self-protection, society must intervene.

In the first class the deficiency is personal. From congenital or accidental causes the child lacks faculties,— the sense of sight or of hearing, the loss of the latter being usually accompanied by want of the power of speech,— or there is a deficiency of intellect or a hampering of brain function.

The next class includes those as to whom there is a deficiency in the normal support, protection, and discipline of the family. This may be caused first by the death of one or both parents; and the care of the child, if not assumed by some relative, must be undertaken by private charity or at public cost.

But sometimes there exists for the child a condition far worse than that of simple orphanage. The parents, one or both, may be living; but in one or both there is a deficiency in the moral sense. The father is a drunken vagabond, the mother may be leading an immoral life. Either may be addicted to crime or may be suffering the penalties consequent upon the violation of law. The home has lost every characteristic of a home. It has become an abode of squalor, an arena of quarrels, a school of vice, a hotbed of infamy. Little children are there, full of all latent possibilities of good or of evil, innocent and sweet as the wild flowers of the prairie, or full of that weird and uncanny subtlety of intelligence that children acquire amid such untoward surroundings. The law lays its relentless hand upon the parents, consigning one to the penitentiary, the other to

the prison. Even the poor semblance of a home is destroyed; and the children, worse than orphans, deprived of even the helpful remembrance of worthy but lost parents, are adrift in a pitiless world. These children must be saved. The same hand that leads the convicted parent to his justly earned seclusion must, with merciful solicitude, gather the children into a new home, where something like a father's protecting care and a mother's yearning affection may open to them a right discipline, leading the way to a useful and an honorable life.

In a third class the deficiency is a disease of the moral sense which has infected the children themselves. Some of them have grown up in just such homeless homes as we have described. These children show many symptoms of moral disease which the law does not concern itself about. They are unclean, unfaithful, untruthful, unchaste, impure in thought and in language. Presently they cross the barriers as to which the law has said, "Thou shalt not." But their offences — unless they have been so unfortunate as to fall under the tuition of real criminals — are of minor grades, and would be trivial if they did not reveal a virus that is incubating in their moral natures. The sooner the law can put its hand upon them, and place them under a proper restraining and reforming regimen, the better for them and the better for the society in which they dwell.

They form the class of Juvenile Delinquents. This class is replenished daily by our police courts. Its members are not criminals,— graduates from the schools of crime. They are only novitiates of various grades of proficiency. They are furtive, alert, quick to learn, full of expedients; in some respects fearless, in others cowards; ready to be led, ready to lead, in mischief; constantly reacting upon the others who make up the roll of their companions.

These children are found in apparently respectable but badly regulated and poorly disciplined families. In these families both the rule of love and the law of obedience are wanting. In some of them parental authority has been quite abdicated. The solemn obligations of duty have never been taught. The children have grown up to believe that the chief end of man is the pleasurable gratification of the senses. In other cases the bow, drawn too tightly, has broken. The parent awakes to the distressing assurance that his boy or his girl of fourteen years old or upward is disobedient, wilful,

given to evil company, and perhaps a leader therein. The child is charged as incorrigible, and is committed to official guardianship. The sentence which thus commits the child records also the conviction of the parent of indiscreet and unwise management of the child, begun probably in the days of early infancy.

These classes of dependent and delinquent merge into each other. Under the regimen of evil companions and a bad home, the dependent needs only the opportunity to become delinquent, and the delinquent is such simply because of the deficiency in him of a moral sense which has failed of its proper development.

The need of the dependent-delinquent juvenile is not reformation, but formation. There must be builded up a right way of thinking; an adequate view of life, its objects, its capacities, and its duties; the inspiration of truth and honor and whatever is of good report. By every possible means, then, turn his face from the evils of the life from which he has been rescued, and present to him the contrasts of the true and healthful life which are opening before him. Be sure that under the worst aspect that may be presented, beneath tangled hair and grimy cheeks and soiled and tattered garments, there lives a soul, soiled, too, perhaps, like the body needing to be washed and cleansed, but capable of being made sweet and clean. Too much stress cannot be laid upon this doctrine, as it presents the only logical foundation upon which right work for the child may be established.

This child, lost, abandoned, forsaken, a waif, perhaps a culprit, is confided to our care. The duty imposed upon us is to save that child. We are to take him as we find him, untrained, deficient, even depraved, and put him under the best regimen which we can devise, tending to develop him into a good citizen, healthy and robust, physically, mentally, and morally, fit to live in this world, and having a fair inheritance in the world to come. This is what is meant by his education.

Our work must begin by making for the child a home. We must surround him with the warm sunshine of a true home life. It must of necessity be a humble home, and it is best that it should be so. This home must be pervaded with the elements of paternal and directive force, with the warmth and earnestness of motherly affection. It must be radiant with the genial atmosphere of kindly love, and the outpouring of sunshiny solicitude, not for welfare only but

for happiness as well. At once the child's face must be resolutely turned about. He must be persuaded by the logic, not of words, but of environment, to forget the things that are behind, that he may press foward to the mark of a high calling of pure living and right thinking.

The new-comer, after passing the ordeal of inquiry, must first be treated to the luxury of personal cleanliness. Wash him, remove the tenanted jungle of his hair, and with his worn and grimy suit commit it to the furnace. Give him clean, fresh clothing; but let it be durable, plain, neat, and devoid of any degrading or punitive badge. Plenty of reasons may be found for dressing the boys in uniform without emphasizing the convenience of catching one who might run away. Give the girls a little chance of individuality. Let some of the gingham frocks be of one tint, some of another, and a little garnishment of braid or other neat and inexpensive ornament will go far to encourage a love of neatness and a pride of personal appearance that will develop self-respect. Cut off the hair of any girl who is too young or too indolent to care for her own. If she will keep it nicely, give her the opportunity.

Give the children plenty of good, wholesome, and varied food, including proper rations of meat and all the well-baked bread which growing boys and girls crave, and something to give it a relish. According to season let there be a frequent distribution of fruit or vegetables,—to each an apple, a tomato, an ear of corn, a dish of berries. These "extras" will not only aid to keep the children in good health, but they will go far toward making them happy and contented. Selected with judgment and at proper times, the cost of such little treats is insignificant. Teach the children to eat in a quiet, cleanly, and orderly manner. For boys provide "mushroom" stools of proper height fastened to the floor, to prevent the rattling of chairs. Cover the tables with clean white cloths, and teach the proper use of napkins and forks and glass tumblers. Conduct these matters in accordance with the customs of neat, frugal American homes.

Too much attention cannot be paid to the care of the children in the night. Do not allow them to sleep in the garments worn in the day, but furnish all with suitable night-robes. Under only the most unusual conditions should two children be permitted to lodge together. The elder boys and girls should each have a separate

room, so arranged as to be under proper supervision; but they should not be locked up except in cases of unusual and extreme discipline. All chamber work and dining-room work should be done by details from the inmates, under supervision of an officer.

For the management of these home-like processes the children should be grouped in families. It is needless to specify that the sexes be kept scrupulously apart. Let the boys do the dish-washing, bed-making, sweeping, and scrubbing in their own departments. Each family should be under the particular charge of an officer, who should supervise all the movements of the members of his or her family except when under the care of a teacher in a school-room or workshop. The girls should be supervised by women, the larger boys by men. The smaller boys need the care of both a man and a woman, who should be husband and wife. The duties of such officers are multifarious, continuous, and exhaustive. Their eyes must be in every place where the children go, their ears open to their voices and not deaf to their complaints. Even in the silent watches of the night they must be aware of any unusual movement, whether of sickness or of mischief, among the members of their families. They should as promptly as possible make themselves familiar with the peculiarities of the various members of their charges, as if they were their own children. They should recognize and encourage the dawnings of good, and check the manifestations of evil.

While every officer and teacher in such an institution needs in a marked degree energy, tact, a temper too serene to be easily ruffled by the petty annoyances which are sure to afflict him, and a great loving heart which has a warm place for each child with whom he comes in touch, upon these family fathers and mothers most of all depends the success of the institution. They must be kind, firm, vigilant, resourceful, too far above their wards ever to recognize a personal affront, so close to each of them as to be able to share and soothe their little griefs and sorrows, and to fling about them the affection that children so constantly crave. Those who are fitted by temperament and culture, good health and equable spirits, for the discharge of their onerous duties are rare; and their compensation is usually far from commensurate with the value of their services.

A most useful aid to these officers of families is found in the assistance which one child may be taught to give to another. Little Martha, aged twelve, is charged to look after lesser Mary, aged six,—

to see that the face is clean, the hair tidy, and other necessary attentions given. The baby is cared for, the little monitor learns the pleasant burden of motherly care, and the hands of the family mother are relieved of so much. Of the three, perhaps the little monitor is the most benefited.

The Number in a Family.— Probably fifty is an outside number for one family. The larger the number of families, the more perfect may be the classification. One group or division may include the little boys up to the age of six or eight, in charge of a mother. Group or division two should include boys from eight to fourteen, and these need the care of both a father and mother. A third, requiring the attention of an energetic and magnetic man, will be lads who are from fourteen up to the limit of age which governs the institution. Similar divisions of girls are necessary. Should numbers require, groups one and two may be divided. It will probably be for the interest of the colored children, of at least the eldest group, that they form a group by themselves. In their family relations the members of the several groups should be kept strictly apart, except under a few well-determined conditions. They may come together in chapel, in military exercises, in certain ways in the dining-rooms, workshops, schools, and playgrounds, but never in dormitories or as promiscuous playmates. In many cases the older pupils may be used effectively as officers, as in drills, parades, and dining-room formations.

From an early hour of rising to a proportionately early hour of going to rest, every part of the day should be provided with some regularly systematic occupation. There may be no idle moments. The forms of occupation may be classed as mental training, physical training, manual training, labor, and play.

Mental Training.— As a rule, those committed as dependent or delinquent are deficient in the school work usually mastered by other children of the same age. Their parents have permitted them to be out of school either from sheer negligence or from a real or supposed inability to furnish fit clothing, or the children have been excluded from school for misbehavior and as incorrigible. Many of the dependents will be too young to attend the public schools.

For the younger section no better instruction than that of the kindergarten can be found. For the older children the work of the primary and grammar grades of the public schools is most appro-

priate and profitable. Remembering the short time which will probably be afforded, most persons will agree that chief stress should be put upon those recognized essentials of a common-school education, — reading, writing, and the art of computation. To these may be added spelling, language, geography, and history. As a means of arousing the better aspirations of the children and of cultivating in them the amenities of life as well as of the finer moral natures, nothing will be found more efficient than instruction in singing. Those who have not made the experiment will be agreeably surprised to hear children of ten and twelve years of age rendering sacred and patriotic music, solos, part songs, anthems, and popular airs with remarkable precision and with a correctness and purity of tone which would be creditable to cultivated performers. In the hands of a competent and enthusiastic trainer, music may be made a fountain of perpetual delight to the children and an excellent vehicle of moral discipline.

Physical Training.— In these days no argument is needed to show the importance of this element of culture. A most effective means of giving this discipline takes the form of military drill. All the boys not physically unfit may be organized into companies according to their families, officered by the more proficient of the older boys, the honor standing also as a reward for good conduct. Distinction of this sort will often prove a most powerful incentive to good conduct in a boy who has before seemed to be careless or even surly. The mark of confidence begets the sense of responsibility. The military method will be found invaluable in all the manipulations of the institution. The boys may be drilled in calisthenics, including the muscular exercises of "setting up" practised by the recruits in the regular army; in the movements, facings, marchings, of the school, of the soldier, and of the company; in the details of the manual of arms, bayonet exercise, ceremonies, and parades. They may be furnished with wooden guns, of suitable pattern, or even with light cadet rifles. A military band is a possible adjunct, containing, say, twenty-five pieces, led by a cornetist. A most important practical value of this military training is the facility it gives for the handling of the boys in all the routine of the institution. They may be assembled in an instant whenever wanted, marched to chapel, to dinner, to work; and they move with all the proud spirit of little soldiers, and without the ignominy of the lock-step.

Manual and Shop Training, and Labor.— The aim of the instruction given to these dependent-delinquents is to make men of them fit for immediate use when the hour strikes for them to go out into the world. Unless furnished with the means of earning their own living, their lapse into delinquency will be sure and swift. Manual training in the form of the use of wood-working tools may be taught in the form of sloyd, which is admirably adapted to boys of the middle class. After this general training, which all the boys should receive, the instruction and the work become specialized. In a large measure the institution should supply whatever is wanted in its own economy. So many boys must be clothed. They must have workaday clothes for winter and for summer, drill clothes, and Sunday clothes. It is an important part of their training that they learn to keep their clothes, their drill suits, and their summer ducks clean and nice; that they remove them at the proper times, fold them, and lay them away, or hang them in a closet, each in its proper place. Cleanliness is a virtue, and a boy who has only a single suit cannot make himself presentable. These practical lessons in neatness and order develop self-respect which leads to manhood. The cost of these garments is simply that of cloth and trimmings; while a considerable force of boys is usefully employed the year round in making and mending, even in cutting and fitting, and thus they learn all the intricacies of the tailor's trade.

Another group of boys may be occupied in making shoes. The making and mending for several hundred pairs of feet will find business for a good many hands. The boys are taught all the elements of the trade, the measuring of feet, the fitting of the last, the choosing and cutting of leather, the assembling of tops and soles into well-made and durable articles for the wear of either boys or girls. The privilege of making a nice custom shoe may be the reward of good workmanship.

Printing will be found to be particularly adapted for both instruction and occupation. A supply of cases, type, furniture, etc., a Gordon press and a small power press, to be run by electricity, is an equipment which may be obtained at small cost, while the current expense for material will also be slight. The boys soon learn the intricacies of the case, the imposing stone, and the press; and the work is adapted to their physical strength. No better occupation for the boy can be found, either while he remains an inmate of the institution or after his dismission therefrom. The product of the

printing-office will be useful in an infinite variety of ways to the administration. Programmes, selections of verse and of prose and of Scripture to be committed, orders, invitations will be often in demand. A periodical, issued monthly or oftener, will furnish an invaluable and ever-present object-lesson. Let the boys, and girls, too, act as reporters, competing to see who will present the best report of the last address in chapel, or other news of what goes on either within or without the walls that environ them. Some boy may be found to have a gift for drawing and for engraving on wood the sketches which he has made. Give him a chance. It will reflect no discredit upon your institution if some number of your periodical shall bear upon its illuminated title-page the legend, "Drawn and engraved by the boys of the printing-office."

To the trades enumerated may be added carpentry, painting, glazing, masonry in its varieties, baking, floriculture and gardening, and, under suitable condition, all the details of farming and dairying.

Equal attention should be paid to the instruction of girls in work adapted to them. Sewing begins, of course, in the kindergarten. As was remarked in regard to pupils in other grades, many of the girls taught here will be older than the children usually found about kindergarten tables, but will be just of the age to be taught plain sewing and mending, from which they will proceed to learn dressmaking and millinery. A girl of sixteen may learn to make and repair any garment she wears except her shoes, gloves, and hats. Particular attention should be given to cutting and fitting, and to the arts of tasteful decoration. A young woman who is a good and skilful seamstress can always find a market for her labor and her taste.

Other girls may be taught to work in the laundry, in the kitchen, to care for rooms, to wait at table, to care for the sick and for younger children, etc. The aim should be to fit every inmate, boy or girl, for some useful and honest employment by which, on dismissal, he or she may at once earn a respectable livelihood. There should also be a disposition on the part of officers and teachers to discover, encourage, and, so far as may be practicable, develop any special capacity or genius which an inmate may possess, so that he may make the best of himself as a useful member of the society for which he has been saved.

Because of its interference with this, which, in season and out of

season, must be urged as expressing our first and only duty toward these dependent and delinquent youth,— the duty of saving them for good citizenship,— I must here record judgment against any system of contract labor which may attempt to enter institutions founded for the purpose of teaching and training such children and youth. Without doubt such youth must be taught to work. Work, real and earnest, must be part of each day's life for every working day of the year. So far as may be, the work done by the children should serve to lessen the expense of their care, support, and education. They should see that they actually contribute to the supply of their own wants,— that, in a measure, they are self-supporting. But society ought not to expect that they should be wholly so.

Their work should be instructive, and not punitive. Their finished tasks should bring with them the joy of accomplishment, the satisfaction which the good workman feels over something worthy of his skill and effort, not the gnawing pain of unavailing toil that wrings the heart of the unthinking drudge. The man or boy whose hand and brain work together becomes a workman. He has an affection for his labor and a pride in its product. The man who is simply one of a gang, each member of the gang doing some certain insignificant item, is only part of a machine, having in the work as little heart as the iron wheel whose motion he controls. He becomes a slave or a clod. If a boy is to be taught love for labor,— a most important lesson,— he must be put at labor which elicits his attention and cultivates his thought. Out of such toil love will grow.

The contractor finds the boy merely a cog in his machine, to be made to give the most work with the least care. In the personal interest of the lad he has no concern. His rights and the purposes of the superintendent will be found in perpetual clash. To make his contract effective, his claims must be recognized even when not consonant with the best discipline or the highest ideals. For these reasons it is evident that the system of selling the labor of dependent and delinquent children to outside contractors ought never to be countenanced.

Play.— Each child should have time and facilities for genuine play, with the least possible restriction. Give the boys the freedom of the yard, with enough of the familiar implements, bats, balls, tops, marbles, jumping-sticks, and let them run and leap and shout. The father of the family must be present with them, with eyes in every

place, but ready to assist in the game as well as to restrain anger and quarrelling. Provide playthings for the girls. Give them a pleasant and airy room, with dolls and doll equipments, playhouses, and tea-things, and let the older girls help the little ones. In summer make them happy on the lawn, under the shade and on the grass. Beyond this continually plan entertainments for the children. Let the Sunday service be full of interest. March the children to their places with some little ceremony. Fill the programme with sacred songs and anthems, sung by a selected choir or by some class, or led by a solo voice or duet, with responses and choruses in which all the children join. Let the school recite in unison some Scripture lesson, the decalogue, or parts of the sermon on the Mount, or a psalm, or selections from the Proverbs. Let some boy or girl recite a selection or give the substance of the last discourse. Then invite some preacher or layman, who knows how to interest children and youth, to give a brief and breezy discourse, stipulating only that he shall not talk about the prodigal son.

Observe notable days,— the more, the better,— Fourth of July, Thanksgiving Day, Christmas Day. Make Easter beautiful with flowers and ceremonies. Remember Arbor Day and the birthdays of Washington and Lincoln. Some day in summer dump a wagon-load of watermelons on the lawn, and let the multitude be fed. Some day in autumn send a squad of boys to gather great heaps of the crisp fallen leaves to be spread thickly all over the lawn, and in the silent hours salt the whole thoroughly with chestnuts or even peanuts, and watch the fun when the children's feet begin to find them on the next day. Make occasional excursions to any near place of interest, — the park, the forest, the lakeside. You need not fear that any will run away. They will all come home tired and happy, with hearts throbbing with love. An abiding love of home, even the home of the refuge, has become rooted in their hearts.

In all this there must be no lapse of watchfulness, no lack of the vigilance of the omnipresent eye, no infringement of order, no failure of a proper discipline. The central principle is that, in the building of character, affection goes farther than severity, that the law of love is far more potent than the domination of fear. The object is to reach and influence the heart, out of which are the issues of life.

Little has been said as to instruction in morals. Without depreciating the value of direct and frequent moral lessons, it may be

proper to note that growth in rectitude is a result of discipline rather than of didactics. Right living comes from daily training in right thinking. The virtues of order, obedience, cleanliness, modesty, truth, honor, affection, and whatever enters into manly and womanly nobility of character, grow, like the good seed of the parable, in the good soil, under the genial sunshine, watered by gentle showers. If the methods here imperfectly described have any abiding value, it is because they are pervaded by an earnest and elevated moral purpose. Nothing has been proposed for work or play, for discipline or amusement, without careful consideration of its influence upon the conduct and character of the growing child.

Assuming that the influences of an institution are fairly salutary, it is evident that, the longer an inmate may enjoy those influences, the more enduring will be their effects and the more stable the resulting character. No more serious harm may be done him than to withdraw him prematurely, especially if he is liable to be returned to the evil or deficient conditions which caused him at first to be committed. Unless he can be transplanted to some home of undoubted fitness to receive him and to continue the good work begun in his life, he should not be permitted to leave the institution until his development in moral stamina and his proficiency in some honorable occupation fit him to stand squarely upon his own feet. He should remain until he is at least sixteen — better, eighteen — years of age.

If the older pupils were always such as had been brought up in the house, they ought to be the best and the most trustworthy. As a rule, they are; and such pupils become invaluable aids in helping to give the right influence to the atmosphere. But very many such boys and girls are sent away to fit homes in good families by the time they are fourteen years old, or earlier. Meanwhile many persons of both sexes who are above the age of fourteen are sent to the institution. As a rule, these persons make the most unpromising inmates. The vicious phase of their education has lasted too long. To a degree, they have outgrown the plastic age when they could be most easily influenced. They have reached that restless age when they begin to imagine themselves men, and resent being considered boys. They are less willing to follow, more anxious to lead. They desire the mastery of themselves. Put with other boys or girls whose moral purposes may not be strong, these recruits often cause

serious relapses in those with whom they are placed. A writer who lately discussed the tramp evil from the inside asserts that the houses of refuge are nurseries out of which many lads have been turned to vagrancy, induced to become "hobos," and made recruits for the criminal classes. We are not disposed to admit the statement; but, if it were true, the fact must be charged, not to any of the methods adopted for saving the children, but to the unwise sending of persons of nearly mature years into the refuges, when a closer and more discriminating classification would have placed them in reformatories better adapted for their instruction. The mischief which an active, bright lad of bad antecedents may accomplish among others of his own age, with tendencies only partly rectified, can hardly be realized.

Nothing has been herein presented from a purely theoretical point of view. These suggestions are not the mere ideals of what a dreamer might imagine possible, but all its points have been taught by experience; and the practice has been followed by satisfactory results.

The great Creator, who made man in his own image, did so by planting in each soul the germs of righteousness. He made it possible that each life should expand along uplifting lines, leading to usefulness in this life, holiness in the life to come, happiness in both. Between the good which may be and the evil which threatens the conflict is irrepressible. It lies with those who have the charge of young lives to foster the good, to repress the evil, and to aid in saving for themselves, the world, and God multitudes of worthy and noble men and women.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL STUDY IN CHILDREN'S INSTITUTIONS.

BY HENRY DWIGHT CHAPIN, M.D.

It has long seemed to the writer that the class of dependent or delinquent children who are placed in institutions could, with great advantage, be the subjects of some system of regular anthropological study. The principal object of such observation would aim at establishing the treatment of this class of children on clearer and less empirical principles.

One point to be demonstrated is whether these children are physically near the average or below it. Those who are physically near the general average of outside children can, with proper treatment in the institution, develop into normal and useful members of society. In such cases no efforts, financial or otherwise, spent upon the children will be lost. Again, there will be found a certain number of children who are, physically, decidedly inferior. These children ought to be known to their guardians, and should, without being separated, receive somewhat different attention. They should be directly and continually under the observation of the attending physician. It may be necessary to give them a modified diet required by their condition, with special forms of exercise. For example, among one thousand children examined at the New York Juvenile Asylum, about 10 per cent. were found to have some curvature of the spine. By a little special care and treatment this condition, when early recognized, can be checked, and the children put in the way of healthy growth and development.

Finally, as the subject of degeneration and its signs has been so much exploited in recent years, careful observations in children's institutions afford a most promising field for comparative study, and may throw some light on this vexed question. The real significance of certain physical stigmata can only be determined by a prolonged study of the mental and moral conditions that may accompany them. We must first distinguish the deformities of disease from the commonly accepted stigmata of degeneration. The important question is whether the significance of the latter has not been exaggerated by some of the Continental specialists.

Thus there may be much asymmetry of the skull without interference with the function of the brain. Deformities progressing slowly are usually compensated for, as the nervous centres adapt themselves to conditions that are long in progressing. Conversely, there may be internal defects with external symmetry, leading to bad results.

When there is persistent mental or moral delinquency, with evident stigmata of degeneration, we may be in line of considering the cases hopeless when a sufficient number have been collated to generalize. Here is a rich field for institutional work, where children are under constant and prolonged observation. Not only may valuable data for their proper classification and treatment be thus obtained, but much light thrown on a vital question of the day. True stigmata of degeneration are hereditary and the result of organic evolution. They may result from either an excess or arrest of development. The earlier such proclivities are discovered, the more may be done by special education and care to correct them. Environment of the right sort may do much to correct any of the recognized vices of heredity.

JUSTIFIABLE PAROLES.

ABSTRACT OF PAPER, BY C. M. HARRISON,

SUPERINTENDENT NEWARK CITY HOME, VERONA, N.J.

In every enterprise, charitable as well as industrial, we have means to ends, or, in other words, defined purpose, expenditure of physical and intellectual energy, emotion, and moral force, with resulting material or spiritual benefit, or both combined. The reform school in its varied equipment, its care-taking and its secular and religious teaching and its functions of community life, comprehends the uplifting and saving of wayward youth. It is unlike any other institution. It employs not only the processes of the public school, but combines the features of the secular school and of the home. With instruction is blended social and religious culture, made the more efficient through the influences of home life. The reform school, therefore, in the best sense, is the home school, whose aim is partly

scholastic, partly industrial, but largely the moulding and refining of character.

The youth of neglect, the dependent, the defective, have distinctive characteristics, it is true; but, essentially, they are, like all children, creatures of social impulses, with tendencies both egoistic and altruistic. Yet their personal histories may be unlike those of the class of average school-children largely because they have not been, through no fault of theirs, so closely allied to the better social and moral activities of life. It is cruel to speak of them harshly. They are delinquents,— some of them bearing the ills of heredity through diseased parentage,— or they may be subjects of defective development consequent upon disease in early youth, or they may be unfortunates, who, through orphanage, being left to shift for themselves, have followed selfish lines, and, having learned nothing of sacredness nor of the moral verities, have not cultivated conscience. Measures must be taken to save them from themselves when they go forth to mingle with the world.

Delinquent children differ from the average school community in their dislike of books and study, in their frequent vicious impulses to gratify desire, in stubborn perversity, and in frequently doing wrong, when wrong and right are matters of choice, even though the greater promise of personal benefit and pleasure is clearly on the side of right choosing and doing. They learn slowly. In the exercise of imagination they are crude dreamers. In power of thought and reason they may be weaklings. While apt in imitation and capable of useful labor, they still lack in originality. Physically, they are generally precocious.

Assuming that institutional energies are wisely directed toward the elimination of the false and crude, and that a wholesome trend toward moral and intellectual regeneration is manifest in the life of delinquents, as a result of care-taking and instruction, the question follows, At what stage of development and under what conditions may these young people be safely dismissed to mingle with the world's workers, subject only to the incidental restraints of the ordinary life of citizens?

If many of the children whom we are studying, went astray in early youth more through parental neglect than, as is often contended, because of their youthful obliquities, then to return them to the parental roof without other restraints and influences than the home offers, is to invite disaster.

Of the class early orphaned it may be assumed that many were led astray through evil associations. Assuredly, they should never be permitted to return to their former haunts. Nor can hope follow them if indiscriminately placed with people upon the promise of "clothes, board, and home." The uniform experience in my field of observation, as regards this method of disposal of "reform school children," has not been of such a nature as to commend it.

When and under what conditions then may paroles be judiciously granted?

The so-called badge system has been highly commended. But it is clear that great hazard besets the parole of pupils, no matter how excellent their records. Age, rather than the badge, must be considered one of the chief elements of the parole problem.

Three groups of children claim attention, and each should be regarded by itself: —

1. Children who have worthy friends interested in them, who are willing to provide for them and guard them after parole.

2. Children of inebriates or of enfeebled parentage, and orphan children, whose waywardness, in the majority of cases, is directly traceable to neglect.

3. Children in whom criminality is an inheritance, and in whom the desire to gratify passion is dominant. Of this group we have (*a*) the bright and rapid in study or at work, but morally corrupt, and (*b*) the dull, slow-learning, morally dull, who degenerate into stupid but persistent tramps.

For the first group I would provide a primary course of study, industrial work, and of religious and moral teaching. This course I would have followed to satisfactory completion before paroles should be considered. Indeed, the candidates for parole should be subject to an examination in the branches of study pursued; and, if the results should prove unsatisfactory, paroles should not be granted. If conclusive as to honest effort and thoughtfulness, the granting of paroles should be done guardedly. The parents or friends should be required to give a reasonable guaranty to provide further instruction and guard against damaging associations.

The course of study for the second group should be more extended, embracing the elements of a substantial English education and of some form of approved handicraft. Paroles for these friendless children should not be seriously considered until their age and

development assure strength and endurance for the task of self-maintenance, and their learning and acquired skill in some form of labor secure them fairly remunerative employment. Before an assignment to self-sustaining positions, the candidates should evince gentleness in their daily deportment and correctness of moral life.

Not only is such a course best for the pupils of this group: it is of equal advantage to the institution which has been their home. What is termed rudimentary education cannot be acquired in three years, where pupils lack power of comprehension and are not gifted with quick perceptions. Trade-learning is not to be encouraged unless there be ample provision for it. A paroled pupil should be so well advanced as carpenter, printer, mason, or farmer that he is valuable alike for what he knows and for his skill in handicraft and for his established habit in painstaking industry. The institution gains by this thoroughness of teaching, for, in the class of advanced pupils, there are leadership and inspiration for the subordinate classes. By virtue of their acquisitions and ability as mechanics the advanced pupils are unconscious teachers. They are leaders, and their proficiency is a source of profit in itself to the institution. A parole from such a class is a badge of honor and a prophecy of success in the world.

What shall be said of the persistent recalcitrants? Fortunately, they are not numerous. Of the juvenile delinquents, I do not believe more than five per cent. belong to this low order. No effort should be spared to help them forward,— away from their baser selves. If improvement is not noticeable, they should be transferred, when of suitable age, to the intermediate prison reformatory, and there continue their culture under a more exacting system. The State may not safely release them. It may most profitably keep them where they will be subject to care, teaching, and police regulation, in the hope of ultimate reform. The trial is worth the making. A release at thirty years of age or forty or fifty is justifiable only on the ground that the recipient of the parole gives promise of a career free from evil besetments.

Paroles are justifiable only in so far as they are an assured means of betterment to the paroled, and of benefit to the world through the addition thus made to its class of law-abiding producers. The objects of institutional training can be best realized by justifiable paroles as thus defined. The question may be asked, Will not insti-

tutions be crowded by the adoption of such drastic measures? If the municipality or State undertake the uplifting of the defective classes, there will be resulting profit only so far as that work is efficiently done, and its results secured to society as a permanent feature of betterment,— socially, if possible, and, assuredly, betterment commercially, through added producing capacity. On the other hand, a parole to please friends or interested politicians is generally a miscarriage of justice and the outlawry of plain common-sense principles.

The embarrassments in my own work have had their source largely in ill-timed, premature, and unguarded paroles. Too often have they resulted in a return of children to homes where order, restraint, and obedience are practically unknown. A few short years of instruction will not transform the child of such a home into a stalwart, who will have the power to remould it. Parental insufficiency, no matter what its kind, is blighting always. Girls especially should never be returned to their homes if parents are not correct in all relations. In short, they should not be permitted to return to friends except in exceptional cases, as, for instance, the removal of the home far from the locality where the wayward life began. In a home among strangers, the "reformed girl" may begin life anew, and redeem her career through obedience to the moral law in yielding herself to the duties of virtuous womanhood. The great embarrassment in the care of the delinquent girl is found in the sympathy given her by professed friends and the well-supported demand for her early release. As she is frequently of the precocious-physical type and sluggish of intellect, she develops slowly, and rarely reaches the vantage ground of self-poise till well beyond her teens.

In institutions governed by boards of control, whose membership is subject to frequent change, sometimes through appointment, often through political influences, the parole question is often irrationally treated. Sentiment and emotion are followed rather than the judgment based upon the careful and logical study of conditions. That which is best is lost in the sway of pity and sympathy. The parents' tears and sympathetic officialism triumph over the judgment of teachers and care-takers, who cling to the theory that what is best for the child should be the arbiter in determining when a parole is justifiable.

XIV.

Charity Organization.

ADVANCES IN CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

THE SUBSTANCE OF AN ADDRESS BY D. C. GILMAN, LL.D.,

PRESIDENT OF JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

Ladies and Gentlemen,— It was understood by your chairman, when I accepted his kind invitation to appear upon this platform, that I should make an address and not present a paper. Accordingly, I propose to depart a little from the lines of thought in which you have been engaged during the past few days, and especially from the details which you have been called upon to consider, and ask you to look out beyond the times in which you are living toward those from which you have descended. Let us see if, in tracing the lessons of history, we do not find some that are significant for us in our present work. I would remind you also, in a very broad way, of the various forces that are working in society for the improvement and uplifting of our fellow-men. My chief purpose is to strike a note of encouragement for those who are involved in the labors of which we have heard so much. The perplexities are so intricate, the difficulties so enormous, the remedies so slow and so inadequate, that it sometimes seems hardly worth while to carry on the contest; and I suppose that each one, in his turn, cries out, "O Lord, how long?"

That is certainly one aspect of our work, but not the only one. Let us marshal our resources. These are war times, and it is natural to use the language of the battlefield and to speak of the forces arrayed on one side and the other. With whom shall be the victory? Shall we yield to Beelzebub and all his ministers, or win under Michael and all angels? They are in truth the combatants.

Certain general principles, familiar to you all, it is worth while to bring forward at this time. One of them is this,— that society goes

forward by the methods of evolution. The golden age is not in the past, but in the future. History teaches us that from very primitive beginnings mankind has been working out a state of society of which we have the heritage and the benefit. Moreover, history shows that these processes are slow, very slow, and that in proportion to the magnitude of the reform we wish to produce must be the time which we take for it. The velocity produced by a given force, in a given time, is inversely proportional to the mass to be moved. If we have great things to accomplish, we must expect to employ a large amount of time in bringing them about. Our problem, if it be not as old as the human race, is certainly as old as the history of civilization.

How goes it with the fight, comrades? What have you to say of the progress of the contest? What are the cohorts against which you are contending?

There are four great bands. The first waves the flag of Infirmity, or Weakness; and among those enrolled beneath it are the infantile and the senile, the decrepit, the crippled, the sick, the alien, the distressed, those who have no sight, and those who have no hearing. But, thanks be to God, that victory is won, we can alleviate their burdens; and, although we are still working to find improved methods and better administration, yet for this group of the dependent and inefficient society has certainly worked out the problem of what to do and how to do it.

The second of these cohorts hostile to our social welfare waves the flag of Appetite. Here are those enslaved by the habits of gluttony, intemperance, and sensuality, those who are reaping the fruit of the seeds they have sown. But Nature is taking care of them, for those who persistently disregard the laws of Nature will surely meet the penalties which Nature herself has imposed. Society has done something, by the various instruments that it employs, to control the power of Appetite, and to confine and punish those whom Appetite commands. But the pertinacity of bodily indulgences renders them malignant to society and destructive to the individual.

In dealing with the intemperate, I do not know that we have made much progress since the leadership of Father Mathew.

The third cohort bears the flag of Sloth. These are they who do not like to work, and will not work unless they are forced to. They prefer the life of a clam, to be shut up in the dirt, and simply open their mouths for such food and moisture as they may suck in. They

are our loafers, our gamblers, our tramps. Perhaps we are gaining upon them, but I rather doubt it. For example, at least six hundred years of English history record the efforts put forth by our kinsmen across the ocean to put a stop to tramping. Yes, we have six hundred years of experience to study in dealing with this problem.

The fourth cohort is that which waves the flag of Ignorance. Not always, but sometimes, this is incorrigible dulness or stupidity. On the other hand, many of the ignorant are honest, many are temperate, many are active or by no means slothful; yet they do not know how to rise from the situation in which they are. They must be taught.

These, then, are the four camps hostile to society,— Infirmity, Appetite, Sloth, and Ignorance. If we look at them alone, it seems as if we were looking into the Inferno, without a glimpse of Paradise. Were it not for the gains that are made from time to time, the contest would be melancholy and disheartening.

Now for the opposing forces. We must first rely upon religion. I do not now — before a company that includes the Catholic and the Protestant, the Christian and the Jew — refer to any particular form of worship or statement of doctrine, but to the spark of upward aspiration that burns in every human breast. You may stifle it, if you will; but it is there. You cannot put it out. You can quicken it, you can develop it, you can have it as a co-operator, if you wish, and if you try. It is that spark which leads man, whether the humblest Hottentot or the most cultivated European, whether Greek or Roman, ancient or modern, to acknowledge the existence of a higher Power, to whose laws he is subject and to whom he is responsible. That is a force we are apt to forget when we are engaged in various forms of charitable work, largely because, during our generation and for some time previously, denominational enthusiasm has been so great and sectarian rivalry so intense that the permanent principles of obedience and reverence, self-control and unselfishness, have been overlooked or forgotten. At least, we fail too often to make use of their regenerating energy.

Always mindful of the necessity of religious help, I name some other agencies that are working with us, and that constitute our attacking army.

First among them, *Legislation*. It is extremely interesting to

study the English-speaking people in their efforts for the relief of misery, the stopping of vagrancy, and the forcing of unwilling men to work. In studying this, you will be impressed with the fact that "the poor-law," which is the basis of English usage, our earliest settlers brought to this country. During the reign of Queen Bess our forefathers were working diligently at the problem. The lawyers can tell you how they persisted through the forty-three years of Queen Elizabeth's reign. During all that time the aim of society, acting through Parliament, was to suppress vagabondage and to relieve misery. I have been curious to follow this chapter of political progress, and I should like to rehearse what I have read; but the story is quite too long for this occasion. I turned to Hume and Froude and Lingard and other accessible writers, without satisfaction; and then I went back to the "History of Parliament" and to Nichol's "History of the Poor-laws," and I found that, before the end of the illustrious reign of that illustrious queen, a commission of forty men — really an early Conference of Charities and Corrections — was brought together, and various enactments and propositions were taken up, one after another, and reduced to form for presentation to the House of Commons and then to the queen. As the statutes thus matured have been the basis of all subsequent legislation, I looked to see whether any great mind had been at work on that bill; and it came out, as I thought it would, that Francis Bacon, Cecil, Coke, and others of like merit, were members of the commission. This was an interesting illustration of how, by working decade after decade, the wisest men of a nation can be brought to far-reaching and fundamental conclusions.

There is another interesting example,— the period of the Reform Bill,— when the franchise was extended, when slavery was extinguished, and when a host of other changes came, all tending to uplift the people. These measures were introduced and carried through by the honorable statesmen of that day. They perceived that the poor-law of Queen Elizabeth's reign had become encrusted with barnacles, and they were obliged to take a fresh start and make new legislation. Even their conclusions did not work well, and were repeatedly modified. For a long while it seemed as if times were worse under the new than under the old régime; but slowly the legislation came nearer perfection, and things grew better than in the early times. Read Spencer Walpole's history of these times.

All modern history teaches us to see to it that legislation is right, that the laws are what they ought to be,— the laws that affect all classes in the community. As long as we send to common councils and State legislatures and to the national Congress men who care more to keep a party in power and to distribute offices than to secure the adoption of wise measures for the good of the people, so long shall we feel the chains that are fettering our steps.

Believing this, I urge that young men should go into politics and make themselves felt there,— not necessarily by holding office, but by advocating wise opinions, and persuading men that they are right, until the needed improvements are accomplished. Think how slow reforms are! It was twelve years after Wilberforce began to work before the emancipation of the slaves. See how long it took to secure the beginning of civil service reform! Trace any other fundamental change, and then be patient, and keep at it until the help that is needed is secured by legislation.

2. *Investigation.*— Some may think, as I name investigation, that I refer to the following up of an individual to discover his needs and his demerits. This is not my meaning. We are engaged in a conflict of such magnitude that all the social agents of inquiry must be enlisted. Statesmen must do their part, and the census-makers must do theirs. Every charity report, every printed record, may contribute its mite. Our young men and women, the students in our colleges, must be enlisted. Many of them are already investigating, and endeavoring to see what lessons are taught by the facts that have been gathered. Many periodical papers are enlisted, among them the *Charities Review*, our own repository, the end of which is to place before thoughtful readers the results of the experiments that have been made, whether good or bad, promising or unpromising, in order that any one working on these problems of charities and corrections may avail himself of the experience accumulated by others who are engaged in similar efforts. Investigation is one of the great contributors to the cause of charity and correction. It is an entering wedge,— a wedge of which you cannot compute the force. It is going to be driven in deeper and deeper. Instead of going through the same inquiries year after year, by and by we shall know certain facts and laws as definitely as we know the facts or laws of physics and chemistry; but this is going to take a deal of time.

3. *Sanitation.*— Great aid is coming from the progress of sanita-

tion. Educated individuals begin to know how to take care of their bodies, and are learning laws which affect their health. That is as it should be. But beyond all that any individual may accomplish, there are certain gains that can only be secured by collective action. They are the tasks of the community. We must have clean streets, good drainage, accessible parks, slums purified. The water supply must be above suspicion and abundant. Food must be properly inspected. Pestilence must be prohibited. To secure all this, the co-operation of the medical faculty with the municipal and State governments must be secured. All these have been enlisted; and yet I think the medical faculty far ahead of the civilians, for theirs is the one calling in which the chief business of the leaders is to prevent the source of supply from which they derive their income. They are endeavoring not simply to cure disease, but to prevent disease and to stop the spread of those enemies of man which deal with his body.

4. *Education.*— Here I refer not merely to reading, writing, and ciphering, but to a good deal more. We must promote mental, moral, and manual training,— three M's let us call them. The schools already created are to be sustained; but a variety of agencies are coming in to teach people to use their hands, to make labor skilful and industry attractive, and in that line a great deal of aid is coming to our charity workers.

5. The last force that I name is *Co-operation.* I suppose that in the history of Christendom there never was a time when men were so near universal co-operation as now. Look at the groups of people of every known sect, of every school, of every antecedent, now co-operating that the cohorts of social destruction may be subdued. This, I think, is the most hopeful sign in this country in our day,— the combination of all sorts of workers, as exemplified in this association of charities, for the prevention of vice and the relief of suffering.

I rejoice that the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Conference of Charities has been held in this city, which affords noble examples of public and private charities, well ordered and well sustained, and that you will go home carrying with you this principle of union in charity. My teacher in the importance of associated charities sits on this platform, one from whom I first learned this lesson in social science,— the value of associated charities societies in all our large towns.

Guizot, in his "History of Civilization," has a memorable paragraph on the appearance of great men. He might have added one on the appearance of great women. Beyond all the institutions that we can cite or think of are the gains that come from personalities, from men and women with rare gifts. If there were time to go over a bead-roll, I should like to characterize some of our great leaders. The calendar of saints is full, from Saint Francis of Assisi to Saint Vincent de Paul; and there are many other saints who have never been canonized. Think of John Howard, quiet, modest, retired, living a life of luxury, when all at once this spark of benevolence is kindled in his breast. See how it flew to Mrs. Elizabeth Fry and Miss Dorothea L. Dix. Remember Dr. Wines, the father of our associate, and Dr. Elisha Harris. What a constellation of reformers they constitute! Turn in another direction, and think of the Earl of Shaftesbury. While he lived, almost every reform movement in England was aided and strengthened by him. Follow Dr. Chalmers through the slums of Glasgow. Remember Miss Nightingale on the high seas and at the Crimea. Think of Charles Loring Brace and what he did in this city for the relief of suffering childhood. Bring to mind Dr. Henry W. Bellows and what he did in the Sanitary Commission, and the lesson he gave to the country of what voluntary organized charity can do. And do not forget Count Rumford, nor that other statesman, Samuel Romilly, one of the great promoters of reform in the criminal law of England. Think of the great series of statesmen who carried those acts forward in the middle of the century, who lifted England out of the period of great distress,— Peel, Cobden, Bright, Russell, and their colleagues. And honor also those who have given of their money, like George Peabody and Baron Hirsch. I might go on for hours enumerating those who have contributed to the relief of suffering and degraded humanity. And such men and such women are here. They are in this room. I will not name them: you know them. If they were separated from us by distance, and especially by distance of time, we should recognize them as in every way to be held up among the great helpers in the cause of humanity. Such are saints and martyrs.

Before I close, let me allude to the two schools of political economy which are well characterized by a recent English historian, Mr. Lecky. One school is the school of asceticism, that believes in suppressing all the tendencies of human nature: the other school

is the school of industry, that believes in setting every one to work. One believes in repose and self-denial, and produces the better individual men, noble examples of consecration to ideas. The other produces the better state of society. To which should we belong? Let me be enrolled in the school of industry.

A recent French writer in philosophy, M. Tarde, has brought out the fact that one of the greatest forces in the world is that of imitation. His book is on the "Law of Imitation." He tries to show how the great movements of men have gone forward under this influence. Is not imitation what we commend in our efforts among the poor? Must we not get them to imitate the industry, temperance, thrift, of those who are above them? May we not more and more make good use of this law of imitation? Shall we not bring good examples before those whom we are trying to influence?

I went last evening to the great exhibition of the devices of electricity in Madison Square Garden. It was filled with thousands of people who were seeing processes and instruments absolutely unknown ten or fifteen years ago. No one can go there and reflect without being conscious that beyond these ingenious appliances there is something mysterious and unknown. What is that electricity? Can you tell me? Can any one? Yet we are conscious that here is something pervading the world which we are able to control and apply, but which we do not understand. Is not that paralleled by the state of society at the present time? Is there not some force outside of the individual, outside any leader, any school? Is there not some force at work which we are all conscious of? Some would say it is the spirit of the age, of the times, *vox populi, vox Dei.* Some would say it is the still small voice of Jahveh, some that it is the Zeitgeist. But every one must recognize that there is a Power leading us forward which we cannot divine, a Power perpetually making for the improvement of mankind and the extension of universal brotherhood.

That is the lesson of history. Without knowing why or how, we and thousands more, in this and other lands, are struggling hard to overcome our foes,— infirmity, sloth, appetite, and ignorance,— by legislation, by investigation, by sanitation, by co-operation, and by association, in the hope that some time or other victory will be ours. Great results have proceeded and will follow from the aggregated influences of those who are thus toiling for peace on earth, good will to man.

XV.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Wednesday night, May 18, 1898.

[For full report of first session, see Introduction.]

SECOND SESSION.

Thursday morning, May 19.

The Conference was called to order at 10 A.M. by the President, Hon. William Rhinelander Stewart, who read the annual President's address. Subject, "The Duty of the State to the Dependent and the Erring."

The General Secretary, Rev. H. H. Hart, called the attention of the Conference to the rule ordering the appointment of the Committee on Time and Place, and asked the different delegations to select one member from each State to make that committee.

The subject for the morning was the report of the Committee on the Use and Abuse of Medical Charities, Dr. Stephen Smith, chairman.

The report of the committee was read by Dr. Smith (page 320).

A paper on "The Use and Abuse of Medical Charities in their Relation to Medical Education" was read by Professor Austin Flint, M.D. (page 328).

An address was made by Rev. Dr. David H. Greer, rector of St. Bartholomew's Church, New York, on "The Use and Abuse of Medical Charities in their Relation to Religious Societies and Churches" (page 332).

ABSTRACT OF REMARKS BY WICKES WASHBURN, M.D., NEW YORK.

It has been claimed that the first dispensary was started by a Christian; but it must not be forgotten that the sick poor were taken to the portals of the temples, and Æsculapius ministered to their wants long before the Christian era.

True charity is a legitimate offspring of Christianity; but indiscriminate charity is not true charity, as every one who has studied charity from a scientific standpoint will admit. And nothing which is not true can be Christian. It is well known that churches, next to hospitals and dispensaries, are the worst offenders in causing pauperism; and, as pauperism causes crime, so the churches in many cases defeat their own ends. Why should the churches themselves see to it that the patient takes up his bed and walks? That this is not necessary is proven by the fact that there are five thousand vacant hospital beds in the city of New York to-day. We give those who conduct them full credit for believing that the investigations as now conducted are effective, whereas they are in reality the cause of mirth, even among those interrogated; for we cannot bring ourselves to call it investigation at all. If the list of alleged investigated cases were submitted to the Charity Organization for review, or, better still, to put for one month the investigation into the hands of that society, which can be done by paying for it, I am sure error would be found. I am the more confident of this error from the fact that in the Charity Organization Society it is found necessary to supply sufficient investigators so that five cases per day are investigated by two investigators. This same kind of investigation would leave about three-quarters of the cases under Dr. Greer's care untouched; or, in other words, his investigators make about one-quarter of an investigation in each case. No wonder they find unworthy only five out of a thousand, while we find five hundred to every one thousand. The amount found by him bears a remarkable proportion to the amount found by our investigators, when we remember that only one-quarter of an investigation is really made.

All admit the abuses. Few have traced them, however, to their logical conclusions. It has been stated by eminent authorities in Europe and this country as well that indiscriminate medical relief is the entering wedge to pauperism. Let us look back to the appropriations and expenditures in this city in 1830, and compare them with those of the present day. The expenditures for all charities in New York City in 1830 was $129,021.66 (of which $4,000 was for dispensaries). The population of the city at that time was 202,589, about 64 cents per capita per year. Expenditures for all charities in the city in 1897 would on that same basis have been $866,792. The actual expenditure was, however, $3,538,071.85.

As the population, according to the last census was 1,515,301, a

little computation will show that between $2 and $3 per capita was spent per year, or about four times as much as in former times. Let us see if there is anything in the manner of distribution of relief to the poor which will in any manner account for this enormous increase; and bear in mind that these figures do not take into consideration the moneys spent by the private and semi-private institutions then or now, such figures for comparison being at present impossible to find.

In 1791 the New York Dispensary adopted the following rule: —

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES. SPECIAL REPORT ON DISPENSARIES.

. . . First, in regard to the admission of patients. Rule 7, adopted in 1791, provided as follows: "Patients shall be admitted by a recommendation, signed by a member, who is to consider him or herself engaged upon honor not to recommend any but such as are in his or her opinion really necessitous." A member was one who had contributed a given sum of money which entitled him or her to send patients to be treated in the dispensary. This rule continued until dispensaries began to increase, when all restrictions were removed; and the following reason was given for the indiscriminate treatment of patients: —

"No questions are asked to wound the sensitiveness of poverty, and no reproofs offered to drive away the vicious. This is not our business. They suffer, or they would not come for aid; and, while we do not measure out our beneficence with a censorious hand, we know that we are doing good, securing the common weal, and are speaking to the hearts of all by showing that a common interest still unites the different classes of community, and bridges over the immense gulfs which, at first sight, seemed to separate them." *

This rule seems to have been abrogated at about from 1830 to 1835, and would, to my mind, account, in a large measure, for the increase in poverty.

To show how matters are going now, after all the remedies the dispensary and hospital people are ready to apply, let us look at two cases. The one is told me on the authority of a brother physician living in the next block to me. He had arranged to operate on a woman on a given day,— since the first of this year. The doctor was to receive $125 for his services, which the patient declared herself able and willing to pay. The night before the operation was to be performed, a friend of the woman called on her, and, learning of the proposed operation, ridiculed her "for paying $125 for what she could have for less than nothing! Why," said the friend, "You can go to the New York Hospital, and pay less for your board than you pay where you are, and have the operation thrown in." The woman tried, found that she could, and did. The doctor went to the hospital superintendent later, to protest against people who could pay being thus treated for practically nothing. The superintendent informed the doctor that there was no way at present to prevent such things occurring. This woman was an out-of-town resident, and not at all entitled to treatment here.

* The New York Eye and Ear Infirmary, established in 1820, was the first special dispensary.

Less than two months ago a man was injured at the corner of Broadway and 21st Street, and taken into a drug store. I was sent for, responding immediately, and found there an old gentleman whose face was badly injured. He was sitting up in a chair and perfectly conscious. When I had partially dressed his wound, the ambulance arrived; and, with the ambulance surgeon, I made the old gentleman ready for removal. When we had finished, without so much as asking me if I wished to retain the case, the ambulance surgeon started to take the old gentleman away without asking him even if he wished to go. The old gentleman declined to move, saying, "I am not going to a hospital." The police came to the aid of the ambulance surgeon, and together they tried to urge the old gentleman to go to the hospital; but he stoutly refused. The policeman and the ambulance surgeon adjourned to a corner of the store, and there arranged to tell the old gentleman that he might get in the ambulance to be taken home. This he also refused to do; and others came to the aid of the officers of the law, to urge and force the old gentleman to go to a hospital. He continued to refuse and resist. I now came to his assistance by saying: "Gentlemen, you cannot take me to a hospital against my will: I am thoroughly conscious. So is this old gentleman; and, although he is injured, you have no more right to interfere with his preference than you have with mine, he being thoroughly conscious."

He was taken home in a cab, and made a good recovery, although eighty years of age. Now I submit that, when the taxpayers' money and the private moneys are perverted, as in the first case, it is bad enough; but, when personal liberty is violated, it is time to call a halt.

We do not wish to see any of the dispensary managers in the condition of mind a dispensary manager was as portrayed by a recent novelist (Dr. Hillis). This dispensary manager is supposed to have made the following confession: —

"My system of transacting business was so complete and perfect in detail, and the punishment for the infraction of a by-law so condign and swift, that insubordination was rare and never formidable at our hospital or dispensary. Our effort to discriminate between the deserving and the impostor at our hospital gate was an imposition and a sham. While we pretended to treat only the deserving and needy at our hospital and dispensary, we waved to the crowds to come on. We wished to make a show: we had a mania for increasing the list of paupers and mendicants on our dispensary ledger.

"In a moment of weakness, Satan whispered in my ear that the well-dressed and respectable element that crowded to my dispensary should have protection; that their interests, their honor, and their presence demanded some mark of recognition from the governors of the hospital and the Free-to-all Memorial Dispensary. They did not wish to be branded as paupers or considered as dependants. They

were helping the institution by their names, and giving it tone by their presence. They were willing to pay a dollar a month to me, to take the sting out of charity. With shame and contrition, I here confess I acceded to this dishonorable, this outrageous demand, and gave these people — these paupers — rights and privileges properly belonging to the honest private patient who consults a physician at his office, and who was at one time — before the advent of my nefarious scheme and dollar-a-month abomination — willing to do so."

Ancient Rome was overthrown by her lavish charities. So shall we be, unless we check the downward progress so plainly indicated by the figures obtained from the comptroller's office, only a few of which I have given you. Think of it! there are fifteen thousand dependants in our public institutions alone to-day,— that is the average daily census. This shows only those in the public institutions, and there is a greater number in the private and semi-private institutions. Surely, this should point the note of warning. I wish to enter my solemn protest against the continuance of a policy that has caused such dire results, lest the populistic tendency created be too great for us and the paupers rule the world. Already is it the popular side. Already have some of our leading citizens become so wedded to this system that it causes no alarm when we see prominent charitable institutions reaching out for funds which do not belong to them. The city authorities have this year discovered in three private institutions alone nearly $100,000 wrongfully taken from the city. All these things point to the necessity of State supervision as the only safeguard against our threatened institutions, yes, as the safeguard also of our country.

The next subject in order was the report of the Committee on Immigration and Interstate Migration. Hon. T. E. Ellison, Vice-President of the Conference, was asked to take the chair.

The report was read by the chairman, Hon. Richard Guenther, president of the Wisconsin State Board of Control (page 262).

A paper on "The Relation of Immigration to Insanity in Europe and America" was read by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Concord, Mass. (page 268).

Adjourned at 12.30 P.M.

THIRD SESSION.

Thursday night, May 19.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P.M., in Association Hall, by the President.

The Committee on Resolutions was announced,— Messrs. Philip C. Garrett, George H. Knight, Lucius C. Storrs.

The subject for the evening was then taken up, — the report of the committee and addresses on municipal and county charities. The report was presented by the chairman, Mr. Homer Folks, who also conducted the Conference during the time allowed for his committee. The report will be found on page 106.*

Mr. FOLKS.— I have the pleasure of now introducing to this audience one who, as mayor of a large city, has given special attention to public charities. To aid him in that direction, he appointed a committee of citizens of fitness and ability who have special charge of certain departments. I introduce Hon. Josiah Quincy, of Boston.

Mr. Quincy made a brief address (page 198).

Mr. FOLKS.— During the past four months the public charities of what was New York and is now known as the boroughs of Manhattan and Bronx have been under the charge of one commissioner. So far as I can ascertain, it is the opinion of those familiar with those institutions that a great and decided advance has been made during the past four months, greater than within any similar period of observation. Let me give you an instance. We have on Randall's Island an infant asylum that cares for foundlings and motherless babies. The death-rate has been very high,— how high I should not dare to say for fear you should think I was exaggerating. Since the 1st of January more supervision has been provided, more nurses have been employed, and a strenuous effort has been made to give every child individual care. As a result, while the death-rate for 1897 was 44 per cent., during the first four months of 1898 it was 17 per cent. Again, if you have visited Bellevue Hospital previously, and have visited it again since this Conference began, you

* The following correction was received too late to appear in its proper place in the body of the book: —

The city of Cambridge, Mass., maintains no institutions for children. During 1897, 7 children were placed out in families at board, 3 by the Overseers of the Poor and 4 by the Boston Children's Aid Society, the Overseers paying the latter the actual cost of board, clothing, and supervision. 2 previously at board were placed in free homes by the Boston Children's Aid Society.

On Jan. 1, 1898, there were in private families 18 children, 10 of whom were boarded by the Overseers of the Poor (2 in their own homes, 3 with other relatives, and 5 in other families), and 8 under the supervision of the Boston Children's Aid Society, but at the expense of the Overseers. 4 of these 8 were in free homes, the city paying only for the actual expense of supervision by the Children's Aid Society.

must have missed some familiar figures from the wards. The destitute sick of New York are no longer degraded by being placed in constant association with the prisoners from the workhouse who are sent to help take care of the patients. That was forbidden by law in 1896. It was partially carried out in 1897, but it was not carried to full completion till early in the present year. These are two large straws which show which way the wind is blowing in New York City. I introduce to you now Hon. John W. Keller, president of the Department of Public Charities.

Mr. Keller's address will be found on page 212.

An address followed by Hon. Joseph H. Choate, New York (page 218).

Adjourned at 10.15 P.M.

FOURTH SESSION.

Friday morning, May 20.

The session was called to order at ten o'clock by the President.

The Committee on Organization was announced as follows: Mr. Alexander Johnson, chairman, Messrs. Ernest Bicknell, R. W. Hibbard, F. B. Sanborn, J. R. Brackett, J. P. Byers, and J. J. Kelso.

The report of the Committee on Time and Place was made by Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, chairman. The report showed that Dallas, Tex., and Cincinnati, Ohio, had both invited the Conference to meet there at its next annual session. The invitation from Dallas was afterward withdrawn; and the committee reported unanimously recommending that the invitation of Cincinnati be accepted, the next meeting to be held in May, the date to be fixed by the Executive Committee.

On motion of Dr. Hoyt it was voted that the General Secretary be instructed to cast one ballot in favor of Cincinnati, and this was done.

Invitations to visit various institutions in the city were read by the Secretary.

Adjourned at 10.30 A.M.

FIFTH SESSION.

Friday night, May 20.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. by President Stewart.

The PRESIDENT.— It gives me pleasure to inform the Conference that I have to-day received an official communication from the President of Mexico, announcing the appointment of a delegate to represent our sister republic at this Conference. You will notice that since our last session the flag of the republic has been added to our decorations, and the colors of our natural neighbors on the north and on the south, Canada and Mexico, are now intertwined with our own.

The General Secretary read several invitations for the Conference, including visits to the Cooking School in the United Charities Building, the Mills Hotel, the Catholic Protectorate.

The subject for the evening was "Politics in Charitable and Penal Institutions."

The President introduced Professor Charles R. Henderson, D.D., chairman of the committee, as the presiding officer of the evening. The report of the committee was read by Dr. Henderson (page 237).

A paper on "Civil Service Reform" was read by Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, of New York (page 256).

Dr. HENDERSON.— It is one of the saddest things for an American to find persons claiming to be American citizens who are willing to accept the duties of caring for the helpless and forlorn, and then act in such a way as to bring reproach upon this country. It is bad enough to subject these pitiful cases to such guardianship. But we do not forget that, in spite of this abominable system, some of the noblest, most useful, and most devoted men and women that the world has ever known have been found. Some of these officials are here to-night, and we respect them and honor them. But we wish to make it possible for those who are not so favorably situated, and who have not, perhaps, the same moral strength to endure temptation, to do their duty. We are grateful to-night that we have had this message from one who knows the facts, and speaks always what she knows. I said it was sad to have unworthy officers. But there is a lower depth still, and that is the condition of indifference with which these things are regarded by the ordinary citizen. There is

a depth still lower than that, there is an abyss opening still deeper; and that is that those engaged in this great work, who represent the intelligence, philanthropy, mercy, and pity of the country, are themselves indifferent. So long as we struggle against this abomination, there is hope for our country. There is no bad force that can stand against good force, when it is illuminated and inspired and organized. Now that we have had this message addressed to our conscience and reason, we shall have another by one who to-day stands at the head of the great organization which represents the resistless antagonism to this evil on the part of the best American citizenship. Some of us are American citizens because we could not help ourselves. We were born so. There are others who have chosen to become American citizens, and some of them have become our leaders and instructors. To-night I take great pleasure in introducing one who has been to me for many years a teacher and a moral inspirer, Hon. Carl Schurz.

An address on "Civil Service Reform" was given by Hon. Carl Schurz (page 247).

Dr. Henderson then introduced Mr. Charlton T. Lewis, who spoke as follows: —

The Spoils System.

Mr. Charlton T. Lewis, New York.— *Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen*,— I have no speech to make to you upon the reform of the civil service or the abolition of the spoils system in appointments to places in our institutions; but I wish to call your attention for a moment to an evil which is strictly parallel to the spoils system, which springs from the same moral defect in the community, and which is to be healed, if healed at all, by appeals to the same agencies of which we have heard from Mrs. Lowell and Mr. Schurz. We have, as you have heard, made excellent progress in this State — very great progress, if we will look back for fifteen years — in the substitution of the principle of merit as a basis for personal appointments. But meanwhile the worst form of politics has sought refuge behind the appointing power itself, in the sacred citadel of our government, in the very constitution itself. Now I am very sorry that my friend, the silver-tongued orator who charmed us all in Carnegie Hall on Wednesday night, is not here this evening: otherwise I should ask him to correct an impression which an incidental paragraph in his eloquent remarks must have made upon many of the visitors to New York from distant parts. I am requested by the Prison Association of New York to try to correct that impression in his absence. I am not about to argue against a figure of speech nor to criticise the orator's illustrations, but it is my duty to remind Mr. Choate of the history of the amendment to the constitution

adopted by the convention over which he presided four years ago in this State. It was a conspicuous change in the fundamental law of the State, and some of us consider it one of the greatest blots upon our constitutional history. Mr. Choate told us that the amendment forbidding labor in prisons for any other purpose than the supply of the State institutions was adopted by the convention contrary to his own convictions of duty, and, as he intimated, at the instigation of certain labor organizations in politics, but that a wise administration ever since that time had gone so far as to produce in the minds of those who then criticised it the belief that it was really a reform in constitutional law, an improvement such as all those critics now enthusiastically support, while the very labor leaders who then urgently advocated it now seek its repeal.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, permit me to say this is very far from the facts as they are understood by us after careful examinations of the recent history and present condition of the penal institutions of the State. I will not detain you with details, but will refer you for them to the coming publication of the investigations of the Prison Association, which will be full and complete on this subject. But I wish to call your attention to the fact that politics in our penal institutions are not limited to the spoils system in personal appointments, but have found a place and expression in the fundamental law. Appointments should be made on the ground of merit; and it is equally binding upon the State that prisoners, the wards of the State, who are found in its prisons, should labor and should be taught to labor. It is a duty of the State to see that their labor is wisely directed. The direction of it should be governed by three principal considerations. First, it should be productive to the State in order that the prisoners may, as they ought, pay the expense of their maintenance. Second, this labor should be educational to them: it should furnish to their minds and bodies occupation and discipline as the necessary condition under which all other influences for reform can be effective. Third, it should be such as will enable them to support themselves as independent citizens in the community after they leave the prison. These are the three tests of any just and proper system of labor in a penal institution.

What does the constitutional amendment say? It says in effect that all these considerations shall be disregarded. Under this supreme law no regard whatever shall be paid to any one of these three principles in the selection and the organization of labor. The only consideration which shall be regarded is that the laborer shall be employed to make something that can be used in the other penal institutions of the State. Why? Because there are half a dozen men who call themselves *par excellence* labor men, the representatives of labor in this State, and who prove it by doing no work, but live by hanging around legislatures in order to lobby measures through which shall enable them to report something like success to the

workingmen who have paid them for this legislative service. These men went to the party leaders, and said, Unless you accept this amendment and put it into the constitution, your party will get no votes from the labor unions in this State at the next election. Under that pressure, this provision was put into the fundamental law of the State. Do I complain of the laboring men? No. I complain of the knot of those who regard themselves as entitled to speak for the laboring interest. I complain of those demagogues in the community who undertake to make a party of the laboring men, and organize them for the sake of political advantage. I protest against every effort to obtain legislation or constitutional law by appealing to class interests, to passion and prejudice. By a wise administration, supported and inspired to a large extent by the State Commission of Prisons, the officers of the prisons have, it is true, thus far succeeded in finding a large amount of labor for the service of other institutions. They have succeeded in employing during the year 40 or 50 per cent., and have increased the number employed until the majority of prisoners are now at work on something, employed, however, utterly without reference to the educational value of the labor or its productiveness now or hereafter. The manner of their employment is not the best. The extent of it is extremely precarious, and the spirit which initiated that amendment is still at work. Our legislature is flooded with new propositions, urged by the power of these labor unions, and backed by others as strong as those who carried that amendment through the constitutional convention, demanding that this, that, and the other thing now found possible shall be hereafter prohibited. Thus politics will continue to complicate the question until the community asserts itself by repealing that provision from the constitution by declaring that labor in prisons shall be governed and conducted on the same moral basis and on the same principles as our reformers would have appointments to the civil service made; that is, that the sole end in view shall be the public good.

Dr. HENDERSON.— The editor of a newspaper, one of the most gentle men, once said to me there are always two sides at least to every question, and it was his business to show which was the right side. It may be that some one here wants to show the right side of the question. I will ask Mrs. Charles R. Lowell to speak.

Mrs. CHARLES R. LOWELL, New York.— It is very bold of me to presume to oppose what Mr. Lewis says, since he has much more practical knowledge than I have about this matter. But, if Mr. Choate erred in speaking in too favorable terms of this amendment, Mr. Lewis errs far more in being too condemnatory. I believe that Mr. Choate is right, and that this is the best prison labor law that has ever been enacted in this State. One reason that it did not work well was that, although two years were allowed to the prison

officials to prepare for the change in the system of industries, there was very little preparation made, and the time was spent in trying to secure the repeal of the amendment; and therefore, when the time came for the change in the system to be put into operation, the officers were not ready, and the prisoners did suffer. The first thing to be considered in regard to labor for prisoners is its educational value, and productiveness should come second. That is of minor importance, of course. Mr. Lewis says that labor has now been found for a large proportion of prisoners, which is true. They are making all sorts of things required in the State institutions, in the public schools, and in other public institutions. The work is preparing them to support themselves. But apart from that I cannot sit in any convention and hear the labor unions (that is, the most intelligent workingmen) criticised for attempting to escape the competition to which they have been subjected by this State for the last twenty-five years. They began first by getting the contract system of labor out of the prisons, and they were quite right in doing it. They are the majority, they are "the people"; and their rights were invaded by this State. Do you know that, when the stove men were on strike in Albany, the State penitentiary undertook the manufacture of stoves, and broke down the strike? The Prison Association, by the way, opposed the contract system also, because it was very bad for the prisoners as well as bad for the outside labor. Then came the piece-price system. If that had been worked with a view to the interests of the people, it might have been right. Then came the State account system. What did that do? I remember hearing of a gentleman who said that he could get a very good coat for $4 at Clinton Prison which was worth about $25 in New York. They ruined the laundry business of this city by taking laundry work at Sing Sing. So they carried on every industry simply to make money, and the laboring people were being horribly injured. Finally, the labor unions had the power to secure the passage of the constitutional amendment, to which Mr. Lewis refers. I am sorry that Mr. Lewis feels so about it, because I respect his opinion. I think the amendment says that prisoners shall be kept at labor and that they shall be instructed, and the law provides that one of the principal objects of the work given shall be to prepare them for self-support. *

Mr. Lewis. — It nullifies that by saying that the work shall be only for State institutions.

Mr. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin, was asked to continue the discussion.

* The law of New York provides that all State prisoners shall be kept at labor for eight hours a day. It also provides for the classification of prisoners in accordance with their moral character, and, generally (although there are many modifying provisions), that those of the first class shall be employed for their own industrial education, those of the second class on productive industries, making articles for use in public institutions only, and those of the third class on labor which will preserve their health.

Mr. A. O. WRIGHT.— The opposition does not come only from labor unions. It comes from manufacturers also, who are not influenced by labor unions. Some years ago there was organized in Chicago an anti-convict contract association. It was opposed to the contract system; and the membership of that association — for I attended it and addressed it — was composed entirely of manufacturers. Not one labor union was a member of that association. In our own State of Wisconsin, from two different counties, manufacturers were elected to the last legislature on the express issue of opposition to contract prison labor. One was a chair-maker, and the other a wagon-maker. These two members of the legislature were elected partly by the labor unions, being elected on that issue. Bear in mind that neither of these industries was worked in our State prison. Our State prison makes boots and shoes, but they saw that the same principle runs through every State. Of course, you will bear in mind that that does not imply opposition to all prison labor. But they did come pretty well toward opposing any form of prison labor, because they claim that under any form that happens to be productive there would be destructive competition at some point. I am stating their ideas, not my own, which are more nearly in harmony with the thought of this Association. I believe substantially with Mrs. Lowell that the educational idea should be foremost as reformatory, and that the productive element should be secondary. But labor should be provided for all.

WARDEN CHAMBERLAIN, Jackson, Mich. — I am the warden of the Michigan State Prison, which has a population of 850 convicts. We have three other prisons, including the Detroit House of Correction, making in all four penal institutions in the State. There are 2,100 prisoners in these four institutions. There are 1,400 working at remunerative labor. The other 700 are employed in the duties pertaining to the work of caring for the prison. We are looking to the State of New York to see the effect of their constitutional amendment upon prison labor. It has been urged on our legislature for the last four years that the State of New York had struck the keynote in putting into its constitution that clause which should forbid the employment of remunerative convict labor in competition with free labor.

I am satisfied that this charge in relation to convict labor coming into competition with free labor is greatly overestimated. In the State of Michigan, in the year 1895, the report of the commissioner of labor shows that the 190,000 operatives of free labor produced manufactured goods that amounted to $237,000,000. In the four prisons, including the Detroit House of Correction, with 2,100 prisoners employed, the total output was $650,000.

When we compare this $650,000 earned by the 2,100 prisoners, in competition with the 190,000 operatives in the different industries of free labor who produce $237,000,000, you can readily understand how small the competition is.

The State of Michigan has wisely, I think, left this matter of prison labor in the hands of its prison boards. It holds these boards responsible for results. It requires them to furnish labor to every inmate in all the institutions. Further, it requires them to furnish education and moral instruction. In the prisons of Michigan these matters are not neglected. It is the fundamental principle of Michigan, incorporated in its constitution, that every man should work, whether he be free or whether he be a prisoner. We talk about the State coming into competition with free labor. Who are the State? I ask. Under our system the State is bound to care for its criminals and unfortunate citizens. It is bound to see that every man who is able to work shall earn his own living while he is in prison. It is for their good. It is for the good of the community when they come out. A man who is confined in prison for six months or a year without labor comes out a dependant. And the State ought not to make dependants of its discharged prisoners. I am deeply interested in this prison labor problem from the position I occupy.

Hon. S. J. Barrows.— I suppose, as the politicians have been referred to, that I may be said to represent this class of the unemployed. I had no notion of speaking this evening, and should not speak if I had not been called upon. It is an unusual experience in the House of Representatives to be publicly asked to speak. You are more frequently asked by the Speaker's gavel to sit down. I have thought some on this subject, and I must say that my views do not entirely agree with those of Mrs. Lowell. I do not feel competent, of course, to form a judgment as to what is going on in the State of New York; but a large number of people in Massachusetts and in other States of the Union regard the experiment in New York as somewhat doubtful and dangerous. I should think that we were going backward in Massachusetts if we inserted in the constitution of our State a provision like that adopted by New York, forbidding the employment of prisoners in the making of any articles except for consumption by the State.

In the first place, it seems to me misleading political economy. It is an error to think that, because you are making things only for the State, you take those things out of competition with free labor. You do not destroy competition: you simply shift it. The competition is there just the same. You are only hoodwinking the laboring classes.

In the second place, it assumes that the work of the prisoner is necessarily injurious to free labor outside. It is possible, of course, to conduct prison labor so that it will bear hard on some special industry; but, if labor is judiciously distributed, there is no more injury wrought to the free classes than if the prisoners who wrought it were free. It may be reasonable, if a man has violated the laws of the State and imposed a cost upon it, that society shall profit

from his labor; but it is unjust and inhuman to profit from his idleness.

Two questions may be raised about prison labor: one, Is it productive? secondly, Is it educative? The second element is often sacrificed to the first. But, of the two, the educative is the more important. I am glad that the New York system does not exclude this. When I was asked what they were going to do in New York when this constitutional amendment was passed, I said: "If the State cannot furnish work enough to keep prisoners employed, they need not remain idle. They can at least be taught trades. If they are not obliged to produce anything which is a profit to the State, they can teach them to lay up bricks and then pull them down again, they can teach them to build plaster walls and scrape it off again, they can teach them to mould and then melt up those castings, they can teach them to forge in an honorable way." With a small outlay for material, they can teach them various trades. The product will not then come in competition with free labor; but the man will become a more formidable competitor, and thereby a more useful member of society when he goes out. Are those labor leaders who object to the competition of prison labor willing that the State of New York shall teach trades to criminals, so that, when they go out, they shall enter upon competition on a higher plane of activity and intelligence than they did before they went in? You must remember that, practically, prisons are emptied every five years, so that the great question is not, What shall we do with prisoners when they go in? but, What shall we do with them when they come out? A prison system may not be responsible for the men who are committed to it for the first time, but it is somewhat responsible if they come back to it. It is here that educative work, which trains the brains, the hand, and the will, is most important. There can be no greater injustice to any man than to shut him up in prison, and deprive him of the opportunity of development that would come from the use of powers that God has given him, and whose neglect and undevelopment may be the very reason why he was committed to prison. I have had men come to me from prisons who had been there two years; and I have even seen men who had been in prison for ten years, and who had learned to do nothing in that time by which they might gain a living on the outside. All prisoners who are sufficiently young and capable ought to be taught some useful trade. Will the labor men agree to that? I think they will when it is properly put before them. The great body of our laboring men are humane and just in sentiment, and we must not confound them with demagogues who seek to lead or mislead them for political purposes.

We have wandered somewhat from the subject so ably presented by Mr. Schurz. There is special need that we shall guard our federal prisons from the ravages of the spoils system as well as our

various State institutions. At present the only United States penitentiary is at Fort Leavenworth, Kan. It was wisely placed by President Cleveland under civil service rules. Last summer it was noised about that an attempt would be made to secure this prison for political patronage. Certain Kansas politicians said, "Warden French is a very good man, but we must have the prison." That is, these local politicians wanted to claim as distinctively theirs the only United States penitentiary which belongs to you and to me and to the people of the whole country. I am glad to say that President McKinley has paid no heed to such appeals, if they were made to him. Warden French is doing his duty faithfully, and it would be a misfortune to put a man without training and experience in his place. A bill was introduced in the House of Representatives to take United States prisons out of the civil service; but I am glad to say it was not reported, and I hope no such bill will be.

Mrs. ALICE N. LINCOLN, Boston.— No one can differ with Mrs. Lowell without regret. She stands for so much that is good in our community, and we all owe her a debt of gratitude; but I do differ with her, and I agree with Mr. Lewis. I think that the unfortunate prisoner has a right to work, and I want to give you my reasons for that belief.

When the superintendent of the Concord Reformatory of Massachusetts, Mr. Scott, tells us that more than two-thirds of the boys and men who come to him have lived by their *wits*, and not by their *hands*, it is evident that even within the prison walls they should be taught the value of honest labor.

When it is possible, as it was formerly, to go to the House of Correction in South Boston, and see men sitting around there idle, knowing that they can do nothing, because they are not allowed by the laws of the State to undertake the work they would be glad to do and ought to have the privilege of doing, and when it is known that from that especial House of Correction more criminals were sent to the insane asylum than were sent from any other similar institution in the State, those of us who understand what it means to have labor in prisons should see that it is given to the prisoners. For nineteen years I have been, as a landlady, in close contact with laboring people; and I have never once heard any of them say that they considered it unjust to give work to men in prisons. Surely, I should have heard a protest if one had been made.

In the municipal election, two years ago, one of my tenants told me that he belonged to an organization representing seven thousand voters in the city of Boston and seventy thousand men in Massachusetts. It seems as if among such numbers a general expression against prison labor would have been made if it was considered one of the most important questions of the day. I believe the opposition to it is less general than is supposed, notwithstanding the legislation which has been adopted concerning it.

The man outside of prison has his chance, and the one inside should have his also; and perhaps he needs it more.

Dr. F. H. Wines.— I feel as Mrs. Lincoln does. I have the highest regard and admiration for Mrs. Lowell; but, when she thinks that this constitutional amendment was a benefit to the laboring men of New York, she labors under a delusion.

Mr. Lewis.— I am glad this controversy has taken the form it has, for it has brought before you the fundamental ideas which are the characteristics of two different schools of political economy. I believe that your convictions are in full sympathy with one of those schools, and not with the other. One school of political economy is that which believes that all labor is warfare, that no man can devote himself to productive industry without displacing the right of some other man to support himself, that the addition of productive members to the community is an injury, and that the best work you could do would be to kill immediately one-half of the people, because we should then be rid of their competition.

The other school believes that human society is an association, a brotherhood, and that, when I devote myself to industry, I contribute something to the welfare of the whole. The gentlemen who have spoken in behalf of labor and Mrs. Lowell have spoken for the former school. We stand for the latter. I wish to say in conclusion that the Prison Association of New York has always identified itself with the interests of labor. The only men who have pretended, either through mistake or their self-interest, to represent labor, have misrepresented it. They have attempted to destroy productive industry in order that the thousands of men in these institutions may be turned out upon the community after a few years, without the means of supporting themselves, without having their consciences educated by labor, and with the institutions themselves becoming schools of idleness and hospitals of insanity. We have opposed that, and we shall oppose it to the death.

Mr. Robert Treat Paine, Boston.— I believe that Mrs. Lowell is right; and, while the argument that giving employment to ten thousand or eighty thousand laborers in prisons unjustly displaces as many honest laborers outside has, in my judgment, no weight, because men in prison have an equal right and duty to labor with those outside, yet, when prison goods are concentrated in form and are offered for sale, it often practically creates a cruel competition. When they are sold in the market at less than market rates, such competition is what honest labor cannot stand up against, and is a dangerous injury.

On the other hand, under the constitution of New York, labor is not to be idle, but is to be employed in the production of goods which will not come into competition because they are not to be offered in the market at all, but are only to be used for State and municipal institutions. Market prices cannot be affected.

I am not ready to assent to the indictments we have heard against labor leaders. In Massachusetts, at least, they are able and honest men, whom I have learned to respect. In so far as they have taken the lead in objecting to prisoners being put to work on goods in large quantities and in forms of industry which reduce market prices, I think they are right; but, if it shall turn out that prison labor under the New York Constitution shall and must go unemployed, I believe they will have carried their action too far, and the result will be bad. But, on the contrary, if Mrs. Lowell is right, and the managers of prisons have at last set vigorously about doing that which this constitutional clause emphasizes, seeking to employ labor in many different directions, if they succeed in finding industries to which the inmates shall be put, and if it turns out that those forms of industry are very varied, and that all the inmates can be employed in making a great variety of things not to be sold under competition in the market, but to be used up without sale, why shall we not all rejoice in the results,— labor, training, instruction? I think Mrs. Lowell is right.

SIXTH SESSION.

Saturday morning, May 21.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 10.15 A.M. After announcements by the General Secretary, the following resolution was offered by Mr. Philip C. Garrett on behalf of the Committee on Resolutions: —

Resolved, That the obverse side of the medal which the Local Committee has been good enough to distribute, and which every one must recognize as a beautiful work of art, shall henceforth be used as a seal of the Conference.

The motion was seconded by Dr. C. S. Hoyt, who suggested that the matter be left with the Executive Committee. Mr. Garrett accepted the suggestion that the carrying out of the resolution be left to the Executive Committee.

The motion was then adopted unanimously.

A resolution was offered by Mr. Richard Guenther, of Wisconsin, with reference to the responsibility of cities toward dependent persons, which was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

An invitation to visit the Catholic Protectory was read. Also an invitation extended to the members to attend service at Grace Church on Sunday evening.

Adjourned at 10.30 A.M.

SEVENTH SESSION.

Saturday night, May 21.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 8 P.M. After music by the boys of the Catholic Protectory, the subject of the evening was taken up,— Insanity.

The chairman of the committee, Dr. William G. Stearns, took the chair.

The report of the committee was read by Dr. Stearns (page 283).

A paper on "Advanced Professional Work in Hospitals for the Insane" was read by Edward Cowles, M.D., Waverley Mass. (page 285).

Dr. Peter M. Wise, President of the State Commission in Lunacy, New York, was asked to open the discussion.

Dr. WISE.— There are so many sides to this subject that it can hardly be considered in one evening. The more technical part was discussed this morning at the section meeting. I believe that the change in the designation of institutions from asylums to hospitals tells the whole story. From what Dr. Cowles has said, you may safely assume that the hospital idea is the one prevalent in the so-called new method. We were told this morning that co-operation of the departments of medical science is absolutely necessary, and that the fallow field that lies between the several departments is the most fruitful one, that it is substantially an undiscovered field, and that probably one of the most important changes in the prevailing work in institutions for the insane at the present time is that the physician for the insane must be a physician in the general sense.

Some reference has been made to New York in a complimentary way by Dr. Cowles. It is my belief that the great system that has been inaugurated in this State depends for continuance upon the hospital treatment of its insane more than upon their custody. Recently a very careful computation was made of the cost of maintaining insane persons, based upon the average duration of the insane life, and taking into consideration all the elements of cost which enter into the maintenance of that person for that term of years (it is slightly over twelve,— taking into consideration also the loss to society of labor as a producing person, it is estimated that the State gains approximately six thousand dollars for every insane person cured, and consequently loses six thousand dollars for every one who is not cured. As an economic question, therefore, it should be the purpose — as it is the purpose of the State — to provide every means for the treatment of the insane. It is one of the most encouraging signs of the times that this change is already here, that there is

nothing neglected in the modern institution which will tend toward the recovery, or, if not the recovery, the improvement of insane persons, permitting their return to society, and making them again productive members of it.

The question which, I fear, is not going to receive sufficient dissemination from the report of the chairman of the committee is the after-care of the insane. I believe that it turns on this very question of advanced professional work, this recognition that the morbid condition which ultimately renders a person insane begins a long while before there is a disturbance of the equilibrium of mind, and lasts sometime after the equilibrium is restored. This Conference has considered at length the care of insane persons who have recovered; that is, there has been a recovery of the mind, but not a recovery of the ability to provide for themselves for a period following their discharge from institutions. They should be relieved from the burdens of life until they are able to re-establish their physical stability, which gives them the power to endure the strain which comes from the ordinary avocations of life. I hope that the conclusions which the committee have reached will receive the attention of this Conference.

A Delegate. — In listening to this very interesting and able exposition which Dr. Cowles has given us of the advancement in professional work in institutions for the insane, one can but be impressed by the fact that a better time is coming, and that a better state of affairs exists than at any time before. True it is that the great object toward which all our efforts are directed, that of the proper care of the brain in health and in disease, is being studied as never before in respect to the practical results obtained and the manifold directions in which this fruitful effort is being put forth. We have learned and known for a long time that the diseases to which the brain and nervous system are liable, affecting the mind in its observations, comes mostly to those who have some inherent defects, or lack the stability to contend with them; in other words, that the cases of insanity which present themselves, for the most part, occur in persons predisposed to a greater or less extent. The way in which advancement will be obtained and insanity may be prevented will be by better knowledge of the conditions of the proper nutrition of the brain substance, how different toxic influences act upon the brain, and what they are. One of the chief of them all is overwork, or fatigue; and, unfortunately, it is true that those who are most apt to overtax the brain are those who least appreciate the necessity of care and prudence in that respect. Education in that direction is one of the important outcomes of what we learn of the results of fatigue upon the brain-cells. This is a thing that can be seen,— the condition of the cells, and the modification due to overtaxation. I have had the pleasure of seeing some of the demonstrations of these conditions as shown in the pathological laboratory since I have been in New York at this time. The need of proper hygiene, so as to

prevent the break-down of the brain and nervous system, is just as great where the break-down has occurred, to prevent further deterioration by disease. I have many times had the satisfaction of seeing a good result from a mental break-down in this respect,— that the individual, having found what his tendency and aptitude were, what his weakness was, learned also how to care for himself so as to prevent further and subsequent mischief of the kind. I have many times seen patients under my care enjoy far better health for years, after having had an attack of insanity in one of its more curable forms, than at any time previous to their loss of health.

In guarding against insanity propagating itself or repeating itself, the matter of after-care has had special attention at this Conference. But I want to say one word upon that subject in a place where it may be heard by those who have not a special, but a general interest in the matter, particularly upon the very unfortunate position in which a patient finds himself who has recovered and been discharged from an institution for the insane, but who is without resources and without friends.

Destitute persons sent out from institutions as recovered or convalescent are very generally returned for the reason that they do not receive care which would possibly have prevented such an unfortunate result. The after-care societies which have been formed in other countries furnish a good example of what we might do in preventing this disaster to our fellow-beings, and also subserve the end of economy; for the percentage of relapses could be greatly reduced by suitable after-care, and saving could be effected to the public treasury.

Rev. W. A. Hale, Ohio.— If patients would go into the hospital during the acute stage, there would be greater results in recovery.

I do not believe that the lay mind can agree with Dr. Wise in his opinion that pathological work should be done, mainly, perhaps, by a general State Board, and accepted second hand by the institutions. Pathological study is justified in institutions by the experience in Ohio at Gallipolis. Epileptics are cured there. How long has it been that an epileptic was considered an epileptic forever! Now a large percentage are cured. The most advanced step made by hospitals in the treatment of the insane is the great humane step. In Ohio no restraint is used in caring for the insane. Control is exercised over them by paternal, gentle, and loving discipline.

Dr. Blumer, Utica, N.Y.— The ideal hospital superintendent was introduced this evening by the chairman, when Dr. Wise began to discuss Dr. Cowles's paper. In this State we are fortunate in having civil service generally as a condition prerequisite for our service. In that way we are able to exclude the imcompetent from our ranks. But in one respect there is room for considerable improvement. Science has absolutely nothing to do with State boundaries, and it is an extremely narrow policy that requires medical men to be resi-

dents of the State of New York. I do not think I could emphasize that point more fitly than by reminding you that, in a vacancy in our service, it was asked if Dr. Cowles would be willing to leave Boston and come to New York. Supposing he had been willing, the law would have prevented.

Dr. H. A. Toby, Toledo, Ohio.— There is some danger of laying too much stress upon the professional side of our work. Great changes have come about in asylum management. If we go back a hundred years, the laity perhaps have been entitled to as much and as great credit as the physicians. The humanitarian and scientific men have gone hand in hand in doing the work that has been done. We should have our eyes open to human suffering. I have sometimes felt that there was a tendency toward our becoming too scientific, and to get too far away from our visions. A more serious effort should be made to recognize this fearful disease before the acute stage is reached. A general practitioner sometimes ascribes it to bad temper, another to overwork, when really there is physical disease.

Dr. Clarke Bell.— I take great pleasure in behalf of the city and State in referring to the honor given to the State in Mr. Stewart's being made President.

Dr. Cowles has been the Nestor among the alienists of America. I sympathize with him when he speaks of the necessity for biological and pathological study. There is truth in what has been said regarding the work of the laity with reference to insanity. You must remember that that great man of England, who was chairman of the State Lunacy Commission, was not a physician. It is a layman, William P. Letchworth, who has been working in this State so many years for the insane; and it is Mr. Stewart, another layman, who has given so much thought, time, service, substance, and energy. The name and memory of the Earl of Shaftesbury will be immortal,— he who said of the insane that they were the most desolate of all human beings and the most friendless, that they needed an advocate because they had no advocate. Speaking of them, he said, "Their relatives, when the door of the asylum closes upon them, seem forever to lose their interest in them." These men have done great work for the insane.

A letter was read from Governor Hastings, of Pennsylvania, regretting his inability to attend the Conference.

Adjourned at 10.30 P.M.

EIGHTH SESSION.

Monday morning, May 23.

The Conference was called to order at 10 A.M. by the President.

Mr. Philip C. Garrett, on behalf of the Committee on Resolutions, offered the following resolution, which was seconded by Mr. Letchworth and unanimously adopted: —

Resolved, That a standing committee of seven be appointed by the President of this Conference, to be renewed from year to year, in the judgment of succeeding Conferences, whose duty it shall be to take steps and devise means to bring about uniformity in the laws of the several States of the Union with reference to the legal settlement or residence of dependent persons, so that the responsibility for their support can be readily established.

The Committee on Reports from States submitted its report for the year through its chairman, Mr. H. H. Hart, of Chicago, General Secretary of the Conference (page 18).

Mr. Alexander Johnson on behalf of the Committee on Organization made a partial report, which was adopted. The report as a whole, and as finally adopted, will be found on page 483.

Adjourned at 10.30 A.M.

NINTH SESSION.

Monday night, May 23.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. by the President. The subject for the evening was "Duty of the State to Dependent Children," Mrs. E. E. Williamson, chairman of the committee.

Mrs. Williamson was invited by the President to take the chair.

An address upon "The Street Arab" was given by Mrs. Williamson (page 358).

Papers were read on "The Interference of a Municipality in Behalf of its Wards," by Mr. Ernest Bicknell (page 375).

A paper followed by Mr. Thomas L. Mulry (page 362). Others spoke as follows: —

DISCUSSION.

Mr. BOLTON HALL.— It is not very easy to draw the line where the proper functions of the State stop. If we take care of dependent

children, there does not seem to be much reason why we should not take care of dependent young women; and in old times many communities gave marriage portions to marriageable women. A few still do so. The care of old people has always been made a State function. There is a general feeling that the care of the aged poor by the State is obligatory, because the State has, at least to some extent, caused their pauperism by unwise or unfair laws. In the degree to which the State deprives its citizens of opportunities to earn a livelihood, it must take care of them. We have tried in New York the cultivation of vacant lots with success. In Detroit it has done much to take the children from the rolls of the dependent. I am sorry the committee has given no time to the question of the cultivation of unused lands. I think the solution of the poverty problem is in access to the resources of the earth, and that the way to have children taken care of is to allow the parents to get back to the lands.

Mr. GEORGE S. WILSON, Washington.— I want to emphasize the importance of one point made by Mr. Mulry,— the religious training of children. I have been in many institutions conducted by States and municipalities, admirable institutions; and I have often talked with the officers on that point. They have children representing many different religious denominations, and it would be practically impossible to have pastors of each denomination represented. It would create trouble and inconvenience to have fifteen or twenty different ministers visiting institutions for the purpose of teaching their doctrines. Yet it is important that the child should have some positive instruction. We separate Church and State in this country, and I think it is wise. In our public schools we have left out positive religious teaching, as the children are supposed to get it in their homes. When the child comes under the guardianship of the State, and the State is supposed to take the place of the home, it would seem that religious teaching should be given to the child.

Mrs. WILLIAMSON.— I think it would be a good thing if we could get the twenty clergymen to visit the institutions. The difficulty is to get the clergymen of any locality to visit our institutions.

Hon. WILLIAM P. LETCHWORTH.— I have listened with deep interest to the able papers that have been presented on child-saving work and to the discussion that has taken place. During the last quarter of a century great advance has been made in the methods of caring for dependent children. It must fill the soul of every one with profound satisfaction to see what has been accomplished for this class, but much remains to be done. I wish to refer to but one point, on which I have heard very little; and that is in relation to the children who are in the poorhouses and almshouses of the land. Of these there are more than we imagine. Taken together, there is a vast army of them. In every State there are some children in the almshouses, even where the law forbids their commitment to these places. We have a law in New York State forbidding their admission; and

yet occasionally children escape the watchfulness of those connected with benevolent agencies, and those specially interested in looking after them, and find their way into these dreary abodes. In the almshouses they are brought into intimate association with the most degraded elements of society. In some of our States the law permits the sending of children to the poorhouses, but forbids their retention therein for any considerable length of time. If, however, they are domiciled in these places but ten days, as in Indiana, an infinite amount of moral corruption may take place. Moreover, every one of these little ones, however pure and innocent when committed, must bear the brand of pauper, and have a stigma upon his name through life. We should protest against this outrage, and determinedly set our faces against this abuse. In States where no law now exists forbidding the admittance of dependent children over two years of age to poorhouses and almshouses, the endeavor should be made at once, by moral suasion and the co-operation of benevolent agencies, to cause such children to be removed and placed in families and appropriate institutions. Furthermore, there should be secured as soon as practicable the enactment of statutes forbidding the admittance of such children to poorhouse establishments; and, after such laws have been secured, every necessary effort should be put forth to enforce them. I make this appeal most earnestly. Let us save the children.

A Delegate.— While I agree with Mr. Mulry in every particular, I also believe that we cannot legislate crime out of existence; but we can educate it out of existence, and I believe the State, the municipality, should go further. We should reach the child before he becomes a criminal, a street Arab, a hoodlum. The State should reach the child while his parents are neglecting him. It should reach the child between the ages of three and seven, before he enters the public schools. There are parents in the tenement houses who cannot give their children domestic education. It takes all the labor of father and mother and grown-up children to feed and maintain the family. Where is the child to go while they are working? The child is neglected. I speak from experience. The hoodlum is made before the child is seven. Take the child in his infancy, and supply the proper training, and we shall prevent a great deal of crime, and shall bring up citizens of whom we may be proud.

Mr. Homer Folks, New York.— A word with reference to Mr. Bicknell's paper on "Municipal Intervention." A municipality may well undertake to provide better living conditions, better pavements, better sewers, better water supply and playgrounds, more evening and vacation schools. It may well make regulations about buildings, as to light, air-space, materials, etc. It may well provide for the inspection of food supplies and the prevention of disease. In doing all these things, it confers many far-reaching benefits, with compara-

tively few risks, because it does not interfere with the natural relations of the family. A municipality may well interfere, also, to take a child away from a distinctly immoral or vicious home, and place him elsewhere; but it should realize that, when it does this, it incurs a very serious and long-continued responsibility. It should see to it that the last state of that child is not worse than the first. It should see the interference through to its logical conclusion. Let us realize the responsibility that is incurred in depriving a child of his natural care-takers and his relations to the community, and see to it that such new care-takers and surroundings are provided as will give the child a better start in life than he otherwise would have had.

With regard to the remarks of Mr. Mulry, I feel that he has plunged into the heart of a very complicated situation in New York, which we have hardly time or warrant for discussing here, except as it bears upon the situation in the whole country. I understood Mr. Mulry to say that all efficient and permanent charitable work had been done by the Church. I think that upon reflection he would wish to modify that statement. When I recall the work of our various Children's Aid Societies, our Associations for Improving the Condition of the Poor, our Charity Organization Societies, our boys' and girls' clubs of all shades of opinion, I cannot but feel that he is seriously in error. No one would be more glad than myself to say that the whole magnificent growth of philanthropy has sprung from those sentiments which are the natural outgrowth of the religious life. But let us not give to the Church the credit for the administration of charity that does not belong to it.

The tremendous issues involved in the care of the twenty thousand dependent children in Greater New York are not to be solved by coining such words as "institutionophobia." There are many factors involved, but all are working out to an inevitable conclusion. Men may come and men may go, but these problems will gradually force themselves to a right conclusion.

The result will be reached quickly and easily, or slowly and laboriously, according as all those interested in children remember or fail to remember that our sole care should be for the children; that it does not so much matter whether they be cared for in institutions or in families, so long as they are well cared for. We should have no plan to vindicate, but should search with our best thought for the system that brings the best results. I plead, therefore, first and most earnestly for a better knowledge of the results of what we are now doing; and I dare to stand here and say — and I think it will not be denied — that nobody now knows what becomes of most of the children that are supported at the expense of this city. It is simply that we have not thought enough about it. We have not thought it worth while to find out. We have not followed the children, and have not really studied our work. I stand as an advocate of no one plan to the exclusion of all others; but I do assert — and

I wish to do so with all the force and energy I possess — that none of us has found the perfect system, and that it is as much our duty to search for the best system as it is to carry on those that we already have.

I do not feel that the specific objections which Mr. Mulry urged against the boarding-out system, especially for New York City, are well taken. I have not heard it seriously proposed anywhere to board out all the dependent children of this city. I doubt whether Mr. Mulry has ever heard anybody say that all institutions in this city should be abolished, and all the children placed in families. But, if the time comes (and come it will) when Mr. Mulry and the societies and institutions with which he is connected shall say, Let us abandon many of our large institutions, and secure for our children more natural surroundings in families, I shall say: God-speed. I am sure you can do it. I know of no city or State in which the limit of the absorption of destitute children by boarding-out and placing-out has been reached. When the time comes that the people who are engaged in placing-out children, who believe in it and wish to do it, say, We have now reached the limit, and cannot find satisfactory homes for any more children, then it will be time for us to face that difficulty.

I do not altogether share Mr. Mulry's feeling that the institution offers a better plan of dealing with the parents of the children. It seems to me that, if my children were to be cared for otherwise than in their own home, I should wish them to be in some snug little family ten or fifteen miles in the country, so that I might go to see them, that I might see the care which they had, and that they might not be lost in an institution with from five hundred to twenty-five hundred other children. I think I should really know more about them if they were in the family, that I should feel that they were getting a better start, and that I should feel more encouraged to rebuild my own home and bring them back to me. Either plan lends itself to a due observation of parental rights. Evidently, Mr. Mulry had in mind placing out in free homes only, and far away, when he spoke of undue interference with the rights of parents. The rights of parents who have not forfeited such rights by neglect should not be interfered with and are not interfered with, but are guarded and cherished by the boarding-out plan when properly administered.

Mr. Philip C. Garrett offered the following resolutions which were adopted unanimously.

The Twenty-fifth National Conference of Charities and Correction, sitting at New York, thanks the President of the United States for the courteous expression of his cordial interest in their efforts for the amelioration of the condition of the dependent and delinquent classes in our country. The members on their part, de-

sire to give expression to their profound sympathy with the President in his present anxieties, and their prayer that his longing may be rewarded by a speedy, lasting, and honorable peace.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Twenty-fifth National Conference of Charities and Correction, assembled in New York City, May 18 to 25, 1898, are hereby extended to the Department of Public Charities of the city of New York, to the managers of the New York Catholic Protectory, the New York Juvenile Asylum, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Lenox Library, and to President Seth Low, of Columbia University, for their kind and generous hospitality shown to the members of this Conference.

Resolved, That the General Secretary of the Conference be requested to send a copy of this resolution to the managers of each of the institutions named and to President Low.

A paper on "The care of Crippled and Deformed Children" was read by Dr. Newton M. Shaffer of New York (page 393).

Dr. PLATT.— I have listened with pleasure to the paper. The hospital which I represent is comparatively small. We have 250 children a year. We have had 11,000 visits to the dispensary. Every one of those diseases that has been mentioned as long as it lasts cripples the patient. He can do nothing, practically, toward earning his own living; and, as a rule, he is under fourteen. A boy, although he may sell papers at seven, if he is a subject of spinal disease or hip-joint disease, cannot do it. He is non-self-supporting. Only recently has education for these cripples been begun. It should be done in all schools for the crippled and deformed. For the small children this means the kindergarten. One great trouble is to get surgical applications. They cost from $18 to $20, sometimes less, if made in the hospital, as in Boston. This amount must generally be paid all at once, and that the people cannot afford. The State ought to provide for each crippled child the sum of $20 for apparatus, and a certain amount for repairs to keep it in order. If the child is cured, it is good political economy. It is better for the State than to have him hold a tin cup on the corner or to become the receiver of stolen goods.

As president of the Orthopædic Hospital in New York, I take this opportunity to invite all the ladies and gentlemen to visit our dispensary and hospital and to see our workshop.

Mr. W. J. BREED, Cincinnati, O.—"Is it practicable to classify almshouse inmates on the basis of character or conduct?" Why not? The course of evolution is not complete even in almshouses or infirmaries. Fifty years ago the comfort of the inmates was a matter of far less consideration than it is to-day, but the farming out principle was a kind of classification which in foreign countries meets even now with good success.

Classification, at first thought, would seem to be attended with difficulty. A simple organization with uniformity of management and methods has the technical advantages of less detail, less care, and possibly less risk of irregularities.

On the contrary, it is possible that we have arrived at a period when, having succeeded in maintaining order, cleanliness, good sanitary condition, and good health in a heterogeneous community of from two hundred to five hundred men or women, it is time for us to consider what should be the next step of improvement.

We may well congratulate ourselves when we realize the existence in our infirmaries of comforts better than those afforded by the home lives formerly enjoyed by a large majority of the inmates. We may have fulfilled all our duties, so far as they have been set before us by example or precept; and yet, when we think of life in an almshouse, we have a strong sympathy with those whom we have heard express bitterly their reluctance to accept those accommodations.

We are in the habit of describing to them the freedom from care, the ample diet, the friendly treatment, occasional opportunities to visit friends, if any are left, and to set forth the situation as preferable in many respects to the uncertain and trying life of one dependent upon public charity.

All this is true; but the suggestion now presented incites the query as to whether the community has done all its duty to those who, through physical or mental failure or accumulating untoward circumstances, have been compelled to abandon the hope of caring for themselves.

While to-day there is nothing tempting about an almshouse to the ordinary citizen, or to the missionary, or to the pastor of a city congregation, it does not relieve those individuals from responsibility of judgment as to methods, or of solicitude for the mental, moral, and religious care of the inmates.

It is very encouraging that already, in our hospitals for the insane and in our infirmaries, classification is accomplished, and specific work is given to a large portion, greatly to their satisfaction and usefulness, and to the efficiency of the institution; but effectively to classify and present appropriate objects of active usefulness to every possible member of an almshouse or infirmary has not, to our knowledge, been attempted.

It may be, however, that we have failed to discover all the advantages to the community and to the inmates which can be developed by active, earnest efforts at disintegration and classification among the inmates of each institution.

There is no institution in which a few individuals may not be found having similar habits of thought and experience. These few by themselves, assigned to employment in the care of their apartments or for manufacture of certain articles for the use of the household or other institutions, or simply in constructing decorative mate-

rials, might be made a centre of usefulness and helpfulness to the whole household, and possibly to other institutions besides.

A class varying from this might also be found, having different tastes, being able to work on different lines, possibly at horticulture, or it may be in the manufacture of toys, or having in it members skilled in some appropriate trade.

Some of us are familiar with the facility with which the blind can be taught certain lines of work, such as stringing beads, making brooms, etc.

One of our Southern institutions has been in the habit of employing women at knitting, which was afterward unravelled. One of our Ohio infirmaries has men with tact for the care of poultry and game. Chickens, partridges, pigeons, doves, and rabbits are raised in great numbers; and occasionally the game is set free in the woods.

Groups of care-takers, of trade-workers, of workers in specialties, little communities in apartments or in cottages, interchanging courtesies, each helping to add variety, animation, and interest, would be of great benefit to any institution.

Such an effort successfully carried out would attract also from the community those who would find points of interest and helpfulness and would give patronage to the products, provided law and public sentiment permitted.

These may be considered idle, visionary thoughts; but we may be pardoned for believing that variety, animation, the establishment of a purpose, occupation of mind and of the muscular system on the part of every possible occupant, would do an immense amount of good to patient and to visitor.

Classification thus far considered may be said to apply directly to neither of the points referred to; but it can be made the basis of classifying, directing, and establishing both character and conduct. Employment at present is usually accompanied with privileges. The greater the diversity of employment, the better and more varied the opportunities for giving pleasure and inciting ambition through favors. The adoption of methods of classification is practicable through awards of positions, of badges, and of special privileges, by methods as varied as invention could suggest.

The lives of these remnants of humanity demand our thought, our sympathy, and our personal effort to make them brighter.

When by the hundreds annually there go from many sections of each State friendless and forsaken individuals to while away the remaining months or years of their short lives, there would seem to be some obligation on the part of the community beyond the simple securing of existence and opportunity to await death. It would seem to be a duty to study the causes and effects and to work toward preventing recurrences. Efforts of this kind would be fit preparation for such studies. It would seem also to be a duty not simply to emulate the average comforts of the home lives which the inmates

may have enjoyed in better times, but to give to them and to their friends indications of what should be the desire of the community that all should have; to wit, a life of activity which is, rightly directed, a life of usefulness.

Adjourned at 10.30 P.M.

TENTH SESSION.

Tuesday morning, May 24.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 10 A.M. The following resolution was offered by the General Secretary, who stated that it was recommended for adoption by the Executive Committee. It was unanimously voted: —

Whereas a Conference of Charities and Correction is to be held during the Exposition of the Trans-Mississippi States at Omaha, in September, 1898, for which the co-operation of the National Conference has been invited, we recommend the members of our Conference to attend the Trans-Mississippi Conference, so far as possible; and the President, General Secretary, and Executive Committee of the National Conference of Charities and Correction are hereby authorized to make arrangements for the co-operation desired.

The President announced the following committee of seven to devise means to simplify the laws of the States relating to settlement: Richard Guenther, Wisconsin; Dr. C. S. Hoyt, New York; F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts; W. A. Gates, Minnesota; J. M. Glenn, Maryland; Horace Boies, Pennsylvania; Charles Lawrence, Pennsylvania.

The subject for the morning was the report of the Committee on Delinquent Children, Mr. Peter Caldwell, chairman. Mr. Caldwell was asked to preside. He read the report of the committee (page 404), which was followed by a paper on "The Proper Care and Training of Juvenile Delinquents: Their Classification, Education, Moral and Industrial Training," by Mr. James Allison (page 411).

DISCUSSION.

Mrs. GLENDOWER EVANS, Boston.— The object of a reform school is to reform,— to take a boy who has been so lawless that he could not live in the community and send him back to the community to live there like a law-abiding citizen. Now one of the great difficulties in the way of effecting this result is that life in an institution

is so very unlike life in the world. Many a boy who does well in an institution, who keeps all its rules and is a model inmate, goes all to pieces when he returns to the freedom of the world. We will assume a model institution, run on lines such as have been outlined by the previous speakers,— manual training, physical culture, and all the rest. In such an institution the boy always is under direction. He lives as one of a company. He gets up with a dozen other boys, he marches in line, he works in line, he goes to his meals and to bed in line. Doing well under such conditions is largely a matter of keeping rules which some one else makes for you, and instantly punishes you if you break; and this does not necessarily fit a boy for living in a world where he must make rules for himself and enforce them for himself.

This break between the methods of an institution and those of the outside world is a chronic difficulty, and one that must baffle the managers of every reform school. We in Massachusetts have tried to bridge it over by a system of probation, extending over a period of some years beyond the time when the boy leaves the institution grounds. The sentence to the Lyman School (as the Massachusetts State Reform School is called) is always for the term of minority. The boy stays in the school for a longer or shorter time, dependent upon his conduct there. When he leaves the school, he goes out to some home approved by the trustees, in which he is on probation and liable to recall for bad conduct. This has been the custom for many years, but it is only recently that the trustees have fully developed the advantages of this system by attaching visitors to the school whose special business it is to have charge of those on probation; and we feel that since the system has been so organized it has been made vastly more effective, and that a long step has been made in the way of minimizing this break before referred to between the school and the world. The constraint of the school is now followed by a period of partial freedom, which will become complete freedom only when the boy shows that he is fit for it.

When a boy's credits are made up, as we say (that is, when his conduct in the school has earned his right to release), his name comes before the trustees; and they decide whether it is best that he should go back to his own home or shall be placed out on a farm. In making this decision, the visitors aid the trustees by a full report upon the home of the boy, which they have always personally investigated, and by as full information as they have been able to gather as to the boy's record before he came to the school and the nature of the temptation under which he fell; and the superintendent contributes his knowledge of the boy's character as it has developed in the institution. If, with these factors before them, it is decided that the boy shall go to his own home (and this is the decision in the case of about half the boys who leave the school), the visitor's duty is thereafter to visit the boy in his home from time to

time, and to get in as close touch as possible with his parents, so that they may welcome his co-operation.

I know to some people this may seem unnecessary, the boy being in his own home; but we find that it is of the very greatest advantage, and that the objections which are anticipated in the matter really do not materialize. It must be remembered that in every case the parents have failed with the boys before they came to the school; and it is found very easy for a person with tact and good feeling to win their confidence, and indeed their gratitude, in the effort to keep the boy straight. In a very large number of cases when the boy proves unruly, the parents send themselves for the visitor to come and give the boy a talking to, and to threaten him with recall, or even, if necessary, to have him taken away. On the other hand, when the boy is doing well, the visitor's sympathy and approbation are welcomed. Of course, the boy himself should not be hampered by the visitor, when he does not need restraint. If the visitor calls at the place where the boy is working, no one but the boy should know why he calls on him. For instance, one of our boys is a barber; and the visitor goes to him for a shave, and has a friendly word of greeting. Gradually, as time passes and the boys show themselves self-reliant and honest, the visitor's authority may be wholly relaxed. How far this will do, of course, must be a matter of tact and judgment. When a boy has to go out to a farm, the officers of the visitor are even more necessary; for in this case not only must the boy be advised and guided, but he must be protected in case the employer proves a harsh or an unjust one.

Another advantage in this method of carrying on the reform school work is that it helps to keep the school itself from getting institutionized. It tends to keep alive in the minds of the management the sense that the school exists for the boys, not the boys for the school, and that the value of the school must be decided by results, not in the institution, but outside in the world. The individual is the thing that counts, and the only thing. What kind of men do these boys grow into? Do these lines of little fellows, who obey rules so promptly and look so clean and walk so straight, turn out tramps and pickpockets, or do they grow into law-abiding citizens? That is the question by which the merits of a reform school must stand or fall. The years of probation are the critical ones, the period on which the attention of the management should dwell. This larger conception of the work of an institution, this ideal of reformatory work as a system of education, influence, and guidance extending throughout the boy's minority, is one which we in Massachusetts regard as the most important feature of our school.

Mr. John H. Smyth was asked to speak on the negro delinquent children of Virginia.

Mr. J. H. SMYTH, ex-United States Minister, and Consul-general to Liberia, W.A.— *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the Conference,*— As I am but a one-thousandth part of the Conference, representing one-ninth of the population of the country, I may content myself to speak from my place on the floor. My purpose is to give you information which you may not have with reference to negro children and youth in Virginia, whence I am.

The need in every Southern State — now that the black race is free, and possessed of citizens' rights — is a reformatory.

Slavery was most destructive of morals in this, that the parents of negro children were not permitted to exercise parental restraint and control over them. This enforced denial of natural right and guardianship conducive to filial obedience and love was the beginning of the end,— moral wreckage of the young of the race.

The severe discipline of slavery, which made the slaves efficient and valuable as a labor class in the South, had the effect upon negro parentage — free and enfranchised — which caused them to dislike and revolt from the exercise of an exacting discipline over their children born during the last thirty years. This sentiment and unfortunate practice of laxity were born of ignorance. These causes, coupled with the poverty of the natural guardians of negro children, account for the jails and penitentiaries of the South having more negro inmates in them between the ages of seven and twenty years than between the ages of thirty and forty years.

But I am here to speak of Virginia's needs in particular, to pick the beam out of her eye rather than the mote out of the eye of the South.

Virginia has a population of nearly 1,000,000 whites and 700,000 blacks, with a present penitentiary enrolment of 1,325 negro felons between ten and thirty-five years of age as against 310 white felons above their majority, because there is a reformatory for white boys.

For fourteen years there has been a steady increase of criminality among negroes,— from 210 in the penitentiary in 1882 to 1,325 in 1896–97. These delinquents cost the State in 1896–97 $378,000 for their support. The whites cost $72,000, while the blacks cost $306,000. The cost for negro child and youth vagrants, disorderlies, and misdemeanants, was greatly in excess of this amount, which fell upon one hundred county governments and some six city governments. From all sources of negro taxation, capitation, personal and real property, only $116,000 was received by the State in 1896. So that for every dollar expended for the imprisonment of negroes in the penitentiary, there was necessity for the State to supplement the deficit by two dollars, leaving out of the reckoning commitments to jails of counties and cities of felons.

With a legal machinery which makes it possible for police officers, magistrates, and other court officials to profit by the arrests, trials, and convictions of children and youths of the black race for any and

every grade of offence, where and when is criminality among this class to stop?

Worse than this is the fact that a custom as old as the State, of herding men and women, boys and girls, in the same compartments in the jails, Virginia, unconsciously, is graduating — under the common and statute laws, annually — thousands of child and youth criminals of the black race.

There is no middle ground, no house of refuge, correction, or reformatory for the black boy or girl who, from defective and from no training, has taken the first step downward; and, as a consequence, crime is accelerated and increased by law.

The motherhood of the black race in Virginia is being tainted in its childhood by jails and a penitentiary. The boyhood and youths are made criminal by means designed for punishment of wrong-doing, but which are destructive agencies of the morals of a large class of the race.

Through the influence of a few earnest negro men, moved by humane and Christian sentiments, the Negro Reformatory Association of Virginia came into corporate existence June 11, 1897, with a negro board of directors and an advisory board of seven white Virginians, with the purpose of rescuing and reforming this class through a reformatory.

Though there is a reformatory in Virginia for white boys, in the eighth year of its existence, neither a negro child nor youth may enter its portals, though there is not a word or sentence in the charter of the Prison Association of Virginia restricting its beneficence to whites nor prohibitive of its influence to blacks.

We who live in the South know that thirty years are not years enough for a people to outgrow their prejudices of race. We know that time is of the very essence of good relations between different races, and that insistence upon the exercise of rights has often to be postponed until men's intelligence and humanity are developed to a recognition and accord of them. Virginia is fresher in her prejudices to blacks than the North, the East, and the West.

Virginia is not able to do this work of reform for the delinquent young of the whites, and therefore is not able to do it for the blacks.

The State gives the white reformatory, or Prison Association of Virginia, the same compensation for care of the inmates of the reformatory as it gives the superintendent of the State penitentiary for the inmates of that institution, and the same amount the counties give their jailers,— 25 cents a day for the food and $10 a year for the clothing of each inmate. The Prison Association of Virginia would not be a refuge and a reformatory for white boys, had Major Robert Stiles not left his law office and appealed to public charity for the money with which the site was bought, and upon which the buildings are erected, never having received from the State treasury but $22,000 in seven years in aid of the reformatory,

aside from the appropriation of 25 cents a day and $10 a year for food and clothing of the inmates.

The Negro Reformatory Association of Virginia has undertaken to purchase a farm of 1,804 acres of ground in the county of Hanover, the erection of dormitories, and two workshops for trades teaching. The cost of the land is $14,432, the cost of the buildings $60,000, making a total of about $75,000.

That the institution shall not be an annual pensioner upon its friends and the public, farming in all its branches, blacksmithing, carpentry, and instruction in the domesticities of the home, are designed to be taught, that the institution from the start shall be self-supporting, with the State's aid in food and clothing of the inmates.

The rudiments of English learning will be taught, and moral training will be the object.

Virginia, by the ravages of war, was the greatest sufferer of the Confederate States. Every industry was either destroyed or paralyzed. Virginia in three years hence will add 3 per cent. to the interest-bearing obligations of the State, increasing her indebtedness annually for an indefinite time by $180,000.

Virginia is carrying on as good a public-school system for whites and blacks as any other Southern State. Virginia is caring for quite one thousand mentally enfeebled and insane negroes, at an expense of $85,000 annually.

Virginia would gladly support reformatories for both races if the effort were not fraught with the present certainty of bankruptcy, the loss of honor in not meeting her obligations to her creditors.

It would be better to kill the unhappy children of my race than to wreck their souls by herding them in prisons with common and hardened criminals.

Virginia has a loyal white and black citizenship now.

Virginia has always been pre-eminently American. In a nation's need nothing is more valued than patriotism.

A major-general in the person of Fitz-Hugh Lee, of a line of illustrious American soldiers, is on his way to "the front."

Her black citizens point with pride to ninety thousand of their kith and kin who

> "Gave their spirits out,
> Trusted the end to God,
> And on the gory sod
> Rolled in triumphant blood"

for the preservation of the integrity of this Union, the glory of Americans, the admiration of Britons, and the envy of Celtic Europe.

The negro race has increased from four to eight millions of souls in thirty years,— 100 per cent.,— and has become an important part of the nation. The race's moral character is, therefore, a constituent part of the moral character of the nation. The nation cannot with safety be indifferent to the negro in the light of its civilization and Christianity.

Mr. Ira Otterson, N.J.— I must say a word in accord with what Mr. Smith has said. In 1877 I went to Virginia and cast in my lot with her people. I can speak from personal knowledge of the facts which have been so forcibly and eloquently set before you. During ten months and a half I had under my supervision from five to seven hundred men. With the exception of the heads of the different departments, they were all colored men. Those who were reared since emancipation squandered almost every cent they received in trifles and folly. Those brought up under slavery were prudent and frugal, many buying homes that they might establish their little families about them. It was evident that the younger race were gravitating to self-destruction, not only physical, but moral. I speak with the warmest sympathy with our friend and brother, Mr. Smith, in his work for the elevation of the colored race. I hope Virginia will be able to do justice alike to black and white.

As to the report read by the chairman, I will give two instances from one family which came under my personal observation. Some years ago a boy was sent to our institution whose father had left his mother, and had gone to live with a woman degraded in morals. That boy was committed for theft. He was intelligent, responded readily to instruction, and was generally good in deportment, and in time was released from the care of the school, and allowed to live with his mother. He has lived and become a good citizen. While he was still in the institution, there was a boy sent under commitment who was the son by that boy's father of another mother. He was only seven years old, a dependent child; and, because the laws of the State said that we could only receive those who were over eight and under sixteen, I had to refuse to enroll him, although realizing that by birth, environment, and education he needed the instruction of our school far more than his older brother. I sent him away, and he had to go to that depraved mother. After a year he was eight, and was sent back to me. I had much harder work to make him amenable to the laws of the school than if I had had him the previous year. As to parole, the mother, through influence on the board of trustees, secured the release of the boy on the plea that it would be an incentive to prepare him for the home. After great pressure he was released. The mother died; and, through the effects of her evil living, the boy was sent to another reformatory.

Prof. W. H. Brewer, Yale University.— It is a law of nature,— and nature's laws are inexorable, cruel, it may be,— but it is a law of nature that the young of a species pass through stages that represent species lower in the scale of life. It was brought out by Agassiz before the doctrine of evolution was taught. It is now held by every student and teacher of evolution. Now there is not a parent before me, father or mother, who has not noticed the savagery of childhood. The old explorers used to tell us how much savages were like children in instincts and reasoning powers. Any

person to-day who has seen anything of savagery, and who has had children of his own, will see the aptness of that comparison, even though it may be humiliating to his paternal feelings. Children are immature savages in many respects. They have their own traditions that last from generation to generation. Some of the traditions of children, like those of savages, have come down for hundreds of years in their place. Children have their own codes of ethics, and ideas of ownership and property. Children delight in cruelty and tortures, until taught otherwise. This is so strong that any system of training that does not take it into account is a failure. There is not a college in the land that does not have laws against hazing. The United States is at war to-day, and thinks she can put down another nation. She put down a great rebellion, but all the forces of the United States Army and Navy have never been able to successfully cope with this one little phase of barbarism that springs up in the youth brought into our military and naval colleges. Children are savages. In the better classes we educate them out of that. We train them by education. We teach them as to what is right and what is wrong, and train them to hold their savage instincts in subjection. These instincts are universal in childhood, and are not eliminated by mere age. There is not one of us but has felt the old savage in him, sometimes more than he could entirely control. "O wretched man that I am!" Saint Paul exclaimed a good many years ago, when he felt the old savage rising up in him stronger than he could control. This matter of training children, where their parents do not do it, must be done by the State, or they will grow up savages. The savages of civilization may be classed under three great divisions: first, children who may be trained out of savagery; second, those that never grow out of it, and whom we call our criminals; and, third, those whom we may call reverts. The very matter of training children into morality, training their consciences, training them in citizenship, is a duty which grows out of the very laws of nature. Man begins that way; and the majority of us have to be educated out of that early stage of humanity, or we shall never get out of it. Suppose that every child in the community should be educated into vice and crime and lying: how many would grow up honest? A few might, but only a few. Suppose that all of them should be brought up in virtue, law-abiding, and orderly ways: a few would go astray, but very few. The whole matter of youthful dangers has been touched on in so many lights here that I wish to call attention to this great law of nature which we cannot get around, this inexorable law, this cruel law, if you please, which lies at the very foundation of the subject of this morning's discussion, and lays on us a duty we owe to neglected and vicious children. Success must and will come along the line that this great natural law indicates.

Judge FOLLETT, Marietta, Ohio.— It is better to train a "street

Arab" or a common boy of the United States in his home than in an institution. We have means in the United States to accomplish that. You have only thought here about the institution and how to reform. The laws of Ohio make every school and every school-teacher responsible to a certain extent in regard to the children brought to them. The truant officers work with the teachers, not to do as they did a few years ago all over the country, to expel the child in order to have a good school; but they say to the teachers, If we pay you in public money, you must hold these boys, and you must educate and reform them. Soon after the law was passed, I went to our State School commissioner, and sat down with him; and we talked it all over. He said: "I agree with you. In my next report I will put that in." That was sufficient. The teachers in Ohio know that, when they are paid public money, they must work for the public. I could give you instance after instance of girls, from what you would call low Irish families, as they would go from the school to the home, the father, mother, brothers, and sisters would get cleaner, they would have better and cleaner things in the house, and they would become more industrious. I could give you one story of such a girl who went through the high school with honor, and was employed as a teacher, where the whole family was reformed and lifted up through her influence. Many a girl and many a boy goes to an institution who should never go there.

Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer, Rhode Island.— I think we are prone to deal too narrowly with the questions that absorb us, forgetting our relationship to the whole matter of training. In many years of service in the official care of dependent children, and in intimate relation with the institutions that care for delinquents, I have found this to be true. In Providence we are trying one experiment which is working admirably in the preventive line. We have schools for special discipline and instruction. When we find a boy or girl in public school too restless, too rebellious, or too careless, or too deficient in some mental qualifications to profit by the average discipline for the average child, we have, under a specified system, an opportunity for placing that child for a certain length of time, not out of his home, but in a day school which differs in some important particulars from the average day school. Whereas the teacher in the ordinary day school has no power to give corporal punishment, it may be given under very restricted circumstances and rules in this special disciplinary school. The teacher has only a few pupils, never above twenty, usually not above twelve. Our best women teachers are chosen even for the big boys; and often such a teacher is able to give that study to the child which is absolutely impossible for a teacher to give who has from forty to sixty pupils, and new ones coming in every six months.

With reference to what Judge Follett has said, I think we should not give our public-school teachers any more work to do than they

are doing now. They give the most responsible, thorough service now; and they have the least recognition. In our special schools we are relieved of the terrible tyranny of the examinations and promotions. The teacher can do her best without fearing the test from the City Hall. For these special schools we have a special superintendent, who has had a long experience; and she knows all the pupils. Boys, particularly, welcome this stricter discipline and more personal consideration and care, and will sometimes, after they have had three months of excellent reports, and when they are to be sent back to the common school, do something naughty, so that they may be sent back again. The personal contact is excellent. That is the thing that holds: whereas, in the great common school, there is a sense of being held by the great force of public opinion.

We have applied the same principle in our public schools one step further. We have no institution for the feeble-minded in Rhode Island, most of whom are sent to Massachusetts with payment by the State. But we have a day school in Providence for the higher grade of feeble-minded. A good many delinquent children come from those below par intellectually. They are delinquent because they do not know how to obey the rules. They drop below the others. They are troublesome in school, and they do wrong things because there is no mental quality to restrain them. They must be specially trained to do the proper thing. We find that in our school for special instruction for the higher grade of feeble-minded that, after two or three years, sometimes after six months, they can be returned to the ordinary school, and can keep step. The discouraged child who has no special care at home is on the broad road to delinquency.

In talking about delinquent and deficient children, do not let us forget our connection with the public school, which is the great mission station in which we are trying to bridge the chasm between centuries of development and continents of race tendency within the period of a few years. We have special teachers for ungraded rooms in our graded schools. Do not let us ask the regular teachers to do more work for the abnormal children. They have all that they can do. Our school-rooms for the normal should be stations of observation, into which the physician shall enter to find out the children likely to be crippled or deformed, and take them out and help them before they need to go to such hospitals as we have heard about. And, also, take out the undertoned, mentally and morally, and see that they have special drill in schools suited to their needs.

Mr. F. H. Briggs, Rochester.— Either a child needs to be in a reform school or he does not need to be there. If he does not need it, keep him out. If he does, send him there. There is no need of sending any child to a reform school who can be cared for outside of it. The children between eight and sixteen years of age in Massachusetts and New York cannot be sent to reform schools: the law

prohibits. Unless the child has so far become a criminal that he has committed an offence for which an adult would be sent to the State prison, he is not sent to the reform school. The training of the reform school does not unfit any child for the duties of life. You might as well say, because the binomial theorem did not fit us for the duties of life, that it does not help us. The reason why reform schools are said to unfit children for the duties of life is because a few feeble-minded delinquents, who would be dependent through life whether they went to reform schools or not, are thus always dependent. You must judge from results. We have trained many men and women there. The question is, What sort of men and women would they have been without it? Many people say, because a man has been to college and turned out a failure, that colleges are not good for anything, that they simply educate fools. If a man is such a failure after he has been through college, what would he have been without the college?

Mr. George W. Johnson, Massachusetts.— Mr. Chairman, I would like to correct the impression probably created by the remarks of the last speaker in reference to the policy of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity of Massachusetts in recommending the discontinuance of the State Primary School. This school, originally established for the care and education of dependent children, had gradually become, under permissive acts of the legislature, a place for the commitment of a large number of juvenile delinquents who, by their age or by the character or circumstance of their offence, seemed to require a milder discipline than that of the Lyman School.

This practice had been carried to such an extent that nearly, if not quite, one-half of the inmates of the school were of the delinquent class; and the institution had obtained the character of a reformatory, and was so regarded by a large part of the community. As a consequence, children guilty of no offence except that of poverty and misfortune were held in constant association with, and were sent out into the world with, the same tainted reputation as those who had been committed by the courts for a violation of the law. The State Board was of the opinion that these dependent children were suffering a great wrong; and, therefore, acting in unison with the trustees of the State Primary and Reform Schools, it successfully urged upon the legislature the wisdom of a discontinuance of the school.

The people of Massachusetts generally, especially those interested in charitable work, after a varied experience with both systems, have arrived at the conclusion that institution life is not as good for the children as family life, that the best place for the child, the best for his reformation and favorable development, is in a good home; and this fact was also one among other reasons for the abolition of the school. The establishment of the small institution at Berlin, referred to by the last speaker, has proved very useful in providing

for a few (from sixteen to twenty) of the younger delinquents who would formerly have been sent to the Primary School.

Mr. F. H. WINES.— Nothing so appeals to the emotional and sympathetic side of my nature as the aspiration of the negro for a better and a higher life, unless it is, perhaps, the discouragement and despair of the much-misunderstood American Indian. I want to say a word in behalf of our friend, Mr. Smyth, who spoke so eloquently. Mr. Smyth will forgive me if I tell you a little of his personal history. On his maternal side his ancestors have been free for one hundred and fifty years. His father was a slave in Virginia. His mother purchased his father, and so became the owner of her husband. But, under the laws of Virginia, she could not emancipate him; and, dying in this relation, she bequeathed him to his own son. Mr. Smyth then became the owner of his father, to whom he gave his freedom under the laws, not of Virginia, but of Pennsylvania, my native State. He was for nine years the American minister to the republic of Liberia.

I appeal to you, ladies and gentlemen, who have seen him and heard him speak, whether the splendid manhood which he exhibited in his person, his manner, and his address, is not equal to any which has been manifested on this platform in the presence of this audience. I trust that the generosity of the American people will respond to the inspiration which has come to him, doubtless from a higher source, and will enable him to write his name by the side of that of Booker T. Washington as a benefactor of his own race. There is nothing which is so much needed, from a sociological and political point of view, as the elevation of the negro, but he can only be elevated by his own efforts under negro leadership. I hope, therefore, that the people of the United States, especially of the enlightened, liberal, and wealthy cities of New York and Boston, will give this man the moral and pecuniary support to which he is entitled.

Dr. WALK.— One of the means of bridging over the life of a child from the disciplinary institution and the life of the home is this plan. In a certain institution with which I was connected, we tried this plan. A large number were homeless and had no family relations; and, as they found places to which they were adapted outside, the boys were allowed to board in the institution, following employment outside. These boys were extremely anxious to reform. They had board given to them at actual cost, about two dollars per week. The attempt has been so successful that the railroad company has said that it would employ every boy who comes recommended by the institution. I know that to be a fact. I also know that one of our most distinguished citizens, trying to enter his son with this company, said, "Of course, I know that my boy has not had the training which the boys have that you get from that school; but I have done the best I could."

Mr. McLaughlin suggested that one great reason for the degradation of people was the lack of proper nourishment. The first violation of nature's laws in failing to supply the body with suitable nourishment is responsible for many evil consequences.

Adjourned.

ELEVENTH SESSION.

Tuesday night, May 24.

The Conference was called to order at eight o'clock by the President, who introduced Professor Charles R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago, as the president-elect of the Twenty-sixth Conference, who spoke as follows: —

Prof. HENDERSON. — We have enjoyed a gracious reception here — I speak for my Western colleagues as well as for myself — in this city, this great commercial, literary, scientific, and philanthropic metropolis. We have enjoyed every hour of it. We have enjoyed the meetings in the hall, the gatherings in the homes and in the hotel, the greetings on every hand, the renewal of old acquaintanceships, and the meeting with the younger workers, who are making discoveries that have to be rediscovered every year, who are learning the new lessons in philanthropic matters which we have talked over a great many years, but which come with the surprise of a splendid revelation to those who come upon them for the first time.

We are here to learn, to reconstruct opinions, to speak for those that are neglected as having found a friend, — yea, hundreds of friends. We are seeking here, out of the enthusiasm of generous sentiments, to learn how to turn those sentiments of benevolence into acts of wise and well-directed beneficence. I thank you from my heart for the great honor you have done me. Since 1884, as often as possible, I have shared in these Conferences. It is a great joy and a great honor to serve upon your committees, to toil with other coworkers, to find out the facts on which our judgment might be based. That is an honor and a joy to us all. So we hope — I speak now for the West — that the people of the farther West will join with our generous and hospitable friends of Kentucky, and others from the sunny and hospitable South, in giving you as warm a welcome in Cincinnati as we have received here.

The chairman of the evening, Mr. John M. Glenn, was then introduced, the subject for the evening being "Charity Organization." Mr. Glenn asked Mr. E. T. Devine, of New York, to say a word.

Mr. DEVINE. — The Charity Organization Societies desire to make a contribution, however modest, to the advancement of professional

standards and improvement in charity work. A training class has therefore been arranged from June 20 until the end of July, in which it is proposed to give the best assistance that we can to those who wish to prepare themselves for professional work in applied philanthropy of any sort. There will be no charge for tuition. The only expense will be the living expenses and railroad fares.

We cannot take care of a large number. We can probably take fifteen. Eleven acceptable members have already registered, so that there is room for three or four more. It is not the establishment of a professional school in any large manner, such as has been agitated, and such as the *Charities Review* in the May number discusses and indorses. It is simply a beginning, an experiment toward that end. We ask the interest of those who care about the larger plan, which may possibly be established eventually.

Mr. GLENN.— I will now mention the names of the committee appointed to revise the Statistical Blank. Messrs. Philip W. Ayres, Hugh M. Fox, Professor S. M. Lindsay, Professor Richmond Mayo-Smith, Miss Mary E. Richmond, Miss Z. D. Smith, Chas. F. Weller.

The first address was by Rev. James M. Pullman, D.D., of Lynn (page 486).

An address followed, by Daniel C. Gilman, LL.D., president of Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore (page 430).

The Committee on Organization reported. The whole report was unanimously adopted, and the officers and committee declared elected. (See page 483.)

DISCUSSION.

Mr. ROBERT TREAT PAINE.— If I have any word, it is a word of exultation. It has been a great pleasure to hear these two eminent men describe this theme from different points of view. I should like to bring the two together, and show it is from the union of these two ideas which we have heard outlined to-night that the momentum is given, to be increased for the next two hundred and fifty years. If co-operation is the triumph of our age, may we not look to see this great movement carried forward in the future? Must it not be in the co-operation of those two forces, that which President Gilman has described and those which Dr. Pullman has described? It was a great pleasure to us all to witness the splendid celebration on Sunday evening at Grace Church, the most interesting church service in connection with our Conferences which it has ever been my privilege to witness. The underlying thought, the supreme idea which Dr. Huntington gave us was that it is the spirit of religion which underlies, and which gives potency to, the causes in which we are engaged. As a Churchman, I have written a paper on the "Relation of the Associated Charities to the Church," in which I have en-

deavored to criticise the Church from the point of view of a member and a son. To-night let me speak as a member of the Charity Organization Society; and, in a word, let me tell you how strongly we need the support, the aid, the counsel, of the Church. This, then, is the appeal which I, as a member and lover of the Associated Charities, make to the churches,— to give to us help and support. And, as has been said, if all the men and women who gather here to-night, mostly laymen, should go back with the feeling that each of us is entitled to claim the support, the intelligent study, of our own ministers, it would extend and develop our cause mightily. We need the aid of all the clergy, high and low. I was impressed at Grace Church with the thought of what a help the ministry can be, and how we must appeal to it. They study the principles which underlie our work; and we are, therefore, entitled to have their intelligent support, so that they can create among their parishes and among their people an interest in this work. If we are going to carry it forward, we must have the splendid momentum which they could give us.

Mr. Alexander Johnson was asked to speak.

Mr. JOHNSON.— You remember the old story of the monk in the convent on the southern slope of the Alps, who listened as the pilgrims, returning from Rome, told of the extravagance, ostentation, and profligacy of the great city, until his heart burned within him; and he felt called of God to go down and testify against such wickedness, and reconvert the city to the Christianity it had forgotten. So he went down, across the plains and rivers until he came to the Eternal City. There he found the people with their wives and little ones, just as he knew them at home. They took him to their houses as a welcome guest, and said: "What cheer, brother? Does the convent need gifts? Is there good store of wine, oil, and meal for the monks? Have you enough for the poor and the sick? How can we help you?" And he said, "I came down from the mountains to testify against wicked people; but these men are lovers; these men, too, would help their fellow-men."

I agree most thoroughly with what Dr. Pullman has said concerning the helpful work of the Church. The purpose of the Church is not almsgiving. It is not bread and meat, nor coal, nor old clothes. The true end of the Church is warm Christian charity. It is love and loving service.

Our well-beloved McCulloch told us: "Charity used to be pity. It is not pity now: it is the equalization of opportunity." And where can such equalization be, if not in the Church. Built in the right spirit, what could not the Church be and do in a great city, with its wealthy and middle class and poor? Might it not be indeed "the common home of rich and poor, of great and small, of bond and

free"? The most potent engine for human benefaction that man has ever devised. Surely, a product of inspiration, the spirit of God becoming manifest among mankind in an institution of blessedness and love.

Now we who come from smaller and simpler places to this great city of to-day, of which, with all its faults and all our criticisms, we are so intensely proud, what shall we say? What have we not seen of splendor and beauty, and wealth,— what of poverty and abject misery! and what sights you have shown us of great benevolence, adequate to such needs and worthy of such wealth!

A few years ago I wandered through the tenement-house district of New York. I saw the sights, I smelt the smells, I suffered the heartache, that many of you have seen and smelt and suffered there. Last Sunday afternoon I revisited the East Side, and found, with wonder and delight, efficient sewerage and clean asphalt streets,— just the same asphalt as that on Madison Avenue. I found equalization of asphalt streets for rich and poor. When any one says, "Oh, that terribly wicked city!" I shall say, "They have asphalt streets in the tenement-house district."

We came to our metropolis with love and pride in our hearts for this which is to be the greatest city of the world. We shall go away still more proud, still more hopeful that, as time goes by, and reforms of all kinds are made, this great city shall indeed be a true city of God.

Prof. HENDERSON.— There was a Special Committee appointed at Toronto, whose report I am requested to read. The committee asks that it may be laid over till the business meeting to-morrow.

The report was as follows: —

The Special Committee to which was referred the report of the Committee on Organization of Charity at the Toronto session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction in 1897, containing certain suggestions for the extension of charity organization methods throughout the country, respectfully reports: —

1. The informal appointment of an advisory committee of one hundred to assist in establishing and extending intelligent methods of organization and administration of charities.

2. An Executive Committee of twelve persons with power to raise and disburse any necessary funds, and to adopt and put into execution such plans as will accomplish the purpose in view.

3. The Executive Committee to consist, in the first instance, of the following-named persons: —

Executive Committee.— Robert W. de Forest, Edward T. Devine, Robert Treat Paine, Franklin MacVeigh, Alexander Johnson, Alfred O. Crozier, Charles R. Henderson, John M. Glenn, Daniel C. Gilman, Miss Mary E. Richmond, Miss Mary R. Birtwell, H. H. Hart.

4. The Advisory Committee to consist of the following, and of such additional persons as may be appointed by the Executive Committee: —

California.—

Colorado.— President W. F. Slocum, LL.D., Colorado Springs.

Connecticut.— Professor W. G. Sumner, New Haven.

Delaware.— Mrs. A. D. Warner, 1202 Delaware Avenue, Wilmington.

District of Columbia.— President B. L. Whitman, Washington; S. W. Woodward, 507 E Street, N.W., Washington.

Illinois.— Ernest P. Bicknell, 410 Masonic Temple, Chicago; Hastings H. Hart, 115 Monroe Street, Chicago; Professor Charles R. Henderson, University of Chicago, Chicago; Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Hull House, Chicago; Franklin MacVeigh, Lake Street and Wabash Avenue, Chicago; F. H. Wines, LL.D., Springfield.

Indiana.— Charles S. Grout, Indianapolis; Alexander Johnson, Fort Wayne.

Iowa.— Frank J. Herriot, Des Moines; Mrs. M. S. Palmer, Burlington.

Kentucky.—

Louisiana.— Michael Heyman, 5342 St. Charles Avenue, New Orleans; Clarence F. Low, London & Liverpool & Globe Insurance Building, New Orleans.

Maine.—

Maryland.— Jno. R. Cary, 501 North Howard Street, Baltimore; President D. C. Gilman, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore; John M. Glenn, 12 St. Paul Street, Baltimore; Miss N. E. Richmond, 301 North Charles Street, Baltimore.

Massachusetts.— Miss Mary L. Birtwell, 671 Massachusetts Avenue, Cambridge; John Graham Brooks, Cambridge; Mrs. James T. Fields, 148 Charles Street, Boston; Robert Treat Paine, 6 Joy Street, Boston; Professor Francis G. Peabody, Cambridge; Miss Zilpha D. Smith, Charity Building, Boston.

Michigan.— Levi L. Barbour, 30 Buhl Block, Detroit; Alfred O. Crozier, 539 Cherry Street, Grand Rapids; L. C. Storrs, Lansing.

Minnesota.— James F. Jackson, 402 Globe Building, St. Paul; Rev. S. G. Smith, D.D., 125 College Avenue, St. Paul.

Mississippi.—

Missouri.— Rev. Thomas N. Finney, 1117 Locust Street, St. Louis; Rev. T. P. Haley, D.D., 2610 Forest Avenue, Kansas City; Professor Charles Lee Smith, Liberty.

Montana.—

Nebraska.— John Laughland, 807 Howard Street, Omaha; Rev. Luther P. Ludden, Lincoln.

New Hampshire.—

New Jersey.— L. Dennis, M.D., 30 Central Avenue, Newark; Hugh F. Fox, 22 Schuyler Court, Bayonne.

New Mexico.—

New York.— Robert W. de Forest, 7 Washington Square, N., New York City; Edward T. Devine, 105 East 22d Street, New York City; Homer Folks, 105 East 22d Street, New York City; Samuel Gompers, care American Federation of Labor, 28 Lafayette Place, New York City; R. W. Hebberd, State Capitol, Albany, N.Y.; Seth Low, 30 East 64th Street, New York City; Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, 120 East 30th Street, New York City; James B. Reynolds, 26 Delancey Street, New York City; N. S. Rosenau, 128 Second Avenue, New York City; William R. Stewart, 31 Nassau Street, New York City; William H. Tolman, 105 East 22d Street, New York City; Ansley Wilcox, 816 Ellicott Square, Buffalo.

North Carolina.—

North Dakota.—

Ohio.— General James Barnett, 697 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland; W. J. Breed, 408 Pike Street, Cincinnati; E. A. Fay, care Associated Charities, corner 5th and Jefferson Streets, Dayton; Rev. Washington Gladden, Columbus.

Ontario, Canada.— Professor James Mayor, University of Toronto, Toronto.

Oregon.—

Pennsylvania.— H. M. Boies, 530 Clay Avenue, Scranton; Philip C. Garrett, 308 Walnut Street, Philadelphia; Mrs. William F. Jenks, 920 Clinton Street, Philadelphia; Professor S. McC. Lindsay, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia; Robert D. McGonnigle, Pittsburg; S. G. Rosengarten, 1217 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia; Dr. James W. Walk, 1705 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Rhode Island.— Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer, 1536 Westminster Street, Providence; Professor George G. Wilson, Brown University, Providence.

South Carolina.—

South Dakota.—

Tennessee.—

Texas.—

Virginia.—

Vermont.—

Washington.—

Wisconsin.— Professor Richard T. Ely, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.; A. O. Wright, Madison.

Wyoming.—

West Virginia.—

5. Further details to be referred to the Executive Committee on its formal organization.

(Signed) Charles R. Henderson.
Robert Treat Paine.
Alfred O. Crozier.
Edward T. Devine.
Alexander Johnson.
Mary E. Richmond.

Abstract of Address on "The Churches in Charity Work," by Rev. James M. Pullman, D.D.

I do not wish to waste time in generalities. Yet some definitions are necessary.

1. Civilization has begun to act upon a new impulse of extraordinary reach and potency. This is the growing belief that human society is an organism, under a law of development, and subject to conditions of health and disease which can be ascertained, and, in large measure at least, controlled. This has generated a growing ardor to improve society.

2. There is a new sympathy with humanity,— an increasing pity for the woes of men. But it is demonstrated that this pity, unguided, defeats itself, and does harm where it would do good.

3. Charity work formerly meant only melioration,— the temporary relief of wretchedness. Now charity takes on economic, educational, and ethical functions, and aims to reach the causes of social wreckage and deficiency, and to rehabilitate character.

4. Under this enlargement of scope there is slowly growing up a new science of charity, which aims to prevent the squandering of pity, and to utilize the great energies of human compassion for both the economic and moral elevation of the dependent and wretched.

5. In this great work the co-operation of the churches is almost indispensable, and is greatly desired. But, to secure this, charity reformers must not expect too much at first, and must carefully study the conditions of the church. For, first, charity is not the function of the church. A church which did not care for the distressed and destitute would be a maimed and defective church, like a one-eyed or one-legged man; but the church is more than an ambulance corps to the great army of advancing civilization. The chief business of the church is to awaken and strengthen the energies which prevent dependency and distress. The church is an institute for the spiritual culture of mankind, to educate and inspire men to the highest uses of life; and this work cannot be subordinated.

Next the function of the church is to generate Motive, not to invent method, to furnish the steam rather than to build the engine. The great motive which energizes all charity work is in the Christian doctrine of the preciousness of the individual soul in the eyes of God, the value and worth of the unit of society. And to awaken the sense of worth in a lost soul is to begin to save it. The church is like an electric-power station, where the whirling dynamos gather a swift, noiseless, potent energy from unknown magnetic fields. The church contributes motive: the organizing society must contribute method.

Next the province of the church in charity work is prevention. Its best work is done on the great slope that lies between the high

table-land of prosperity and the abyss of poverty. On this slope are the saloons, the money-lenders, the child-life insurers, the instalment-plan sellers of everything, and demagogues, exploiters, and misleaders of every degree. The heartening-up of men for the struggle of life is a great work. And, in spite of all the admitted defects of the church and of some glaring defects that are not admitted, I believe I could safely claim that the church is the greatest anti-poverty society on earth to-day. The great State and municipal charities perceive and deplore their pathetic helplessness to *prevent* the troubles to which they minister.

Again, the church furnishes the majority of our charity workers. I think I may say that more than ninety per cent. of the charity workers are persons who kneel at some sacred altar and confess some living faith.

Too much is made of pauperization. Relief charity, we must not forget, deals largely with the inert and characterless; and, as Badalia Herodsfoot says in Kipling's story, "You cawn't pauperize them as 'asn't things, to begin with. They're bloomin' well pauped already." We cannot hope to cure the deadly moral disease of pauperism by simply withholding help. We must deal with the causes that produce and multiply these inert and downward-tending organizims.

Now I am ready to criticise the attitude of the Church toward rational, tender, and effective charity. Let me say that the coldest, cheapest, barrenest form of charity is hysterical, ignorant almsgiving. And the pity-squandering charity which is more regardful of the giver than of the receiver must give place to the wise, generous, all-round charity which seeks to uplift and bless the receiver.

One cause of false methods of church charity lies in denominational competition. "Other and rival denominations have got a great charity institution. We must have one." And there are churches which seem to want to keep their charity cases, as game-preserves are kept, for the sole use of their own charity sportsmen. I find, too, a lamentable lack of co-ordination and co-operation within many churches, especially large and active ones. There are frequently from three to five or six separate initiatives of charity in one church, not working in concert with each other. I find, too, many pastors who do not see the evil of giving commendatory letters to those whom they consider worthy cases. These letters are virtually licenses to beg respectably without responsibility or accounting to anybody. It is a most demoralizing form of almsgiving. Many such letters have been presented to me, bearing date three or four years previous to presentation, and showing signs of constant use in patched backs and half-effaced writing. To give such a letter is simply to shirk charity. If the person is worthy, he ought to be more effectively helped. If unworthy, he ought not to be turned loose on the community with the minister's indorsement.

Again, through lack of co-operation on the part of the churches, there is an enormous waste of humane impulse, which, wisely directed, would be ample to supply every real need of the dependent. If all the churches of a community would co-operate in wise charity administration, the bitter cry of forlorn and outcast men, women, and children, would be heard in that community no more.

Many powerful churches have wheeled into line; and a most encouraging feature in the better education of ministers for broad and effective charity work is seen in the endowment of chairs of Applied Christianity in the Divinity Schools. The science of human society is better studied than ever before; and every pastor's study ought to be a centre of the best available knowledge and skill in the actual saving of men,— a bureau of information concerning the latest and most practical methods of overcoming actual evil. The modern pastor should know all about the effective methods of dealing with neglected childhood, with both voluntary and involuntary destitution, and with the common vices that pull men and women down. He should also know how to awaken the sense of social responsibility, and have the skill to direct it to effective ends. He ought to be able to show how the worst evils are vulnerable to the touch of love and skill.

The first thing I did when I was converted to Charity Organization (and I was converted by Charles D. Kellogg, organizing secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society) was to organize a Charity Conference in my church, and begin to learn and to teach and practise a better charity. I found, as every pastor will find, keenly interested helpers among my people,— some who developed a special genius for friendly visiting. By natural selection the conference drew the competent toward it; and the charities of the church gradually became warm, tender, daring, skilful and effective.

I approve the "Buffalo Plan," because I think it will awaken some churches to co-operation and better methods. I also approve the proposed short-course training school, because it will make its pupils hungry for more. I think that, as the churches themselves become better organized for charity, they will co-operate more earnestly with the effort to organize and co-ordinate the charities of the community.

Charity Organization Section Meetings.

Instead of submitting a report of the Committee on Charity Organization the chairman, Mr. John M. Glenn, has prepared the following epitome of the section meetings, which for convenience of reference is inserted here.

Three section meetings were held in Assembly Hall of the Charities Building, as provided in the programme. The average attendance

was about two hundred and fifty. A fourth meeting was held by request on Monday afternoon, in the library of the Charity Organization Society, to discuss the work of charity organization societies in smaller towns. About seventy-five were present.

The first meeting was on Friday, May 20, at 10.30 A.M. The subject was "Friendly Visiting."

The discussion was opened by Mr. Hugh F. Fox, Bayonne, N.J. He gave "Not alms, but a friend," as the key-note of the discussion. He opposed the giving of relief by visitors, spoke of the advantage of getting visitors from the same class as those in need, and gave an illustration of the effect of good visiting in saving a drinking family.

Miss Susan P. Wharton, Philadelphia, thought it wise to interest visitors in neighborhoods and families before the latter needed relief by making them collectors of savings and in other ways. This view was heartily indorsed by Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, New York. Miss Anna F. Hunter, Newport, said that the collection of savings helped the visitor, and led to sincere friendships, which often saved families from becoming paupers.

Miss Zilpha D. Smith, Boston, said that the prime object of a visitor is to win friends, which takes time and patience. The visitor should not supply material needs: that should be the duty of the paid agent and district committee. It must always be remembered that our work is for the benefit of the whole community rather than for individuals.

Rev. William R. Lord, Baltimore, late of St. Paul, said that the success of friendly visiting in St. Paul was due to the adoption of two principles; namely, that no material relief was to be given by visitors, and that no one should enter a home with any spirit of condescension.

Mr. N. S. Rosenau, New York, thought friendly visiting, under proper direction, the best way of dealing with the poor, and advocated careful training for visitors.

Miss Myra G. Frenyear, Boston, thought experience more valuable than training, and spoke of work with children as a good method to win the confidence of parents. Teachers are often helpful.

Mr. Edward T. Devine, New York, thought it was not wise to be too exacting in the selection of visitors. They should be given every encouragement, especially in early periods of discouragement.

Professor Samuel McC. Lindsay, Philadelphia, thought we were just beginning to realize the value of friendly visiting. Interest should be stimulated by reading. A good way to approach the poor is to ask their help in getting information, and in other ways.

Mr. William P. Fowler, Boston, thought weekly conferences of visitors a vital necessity.

Miss Mary L. Birtwell, Cambridge, spoke of the necessity for careful study of families, and a thorough knowledge of their ways, which must be learned gradually. Visitors must have strong sense and character.

Miss Maria M. Love, Buffalo, thought that too high a standard might frighten away good visitors, yet selection was necessary.

Miss Mary E. Richmond, Baltimore, said that the surest foundation of friendly visiting is the leadership of a few who believe in it and are ready to see that those who throw themselves into it shall learn to swim without drowning.

Adjourned at 12.45 P.M.

The second meeting was on Saturday, May 21, at 10.30 A.M. The subject was "General Relief Societies and their Relations to Other Charities."

Mr. N. S. Rosenau said that, as charity should be personal, there ought to be no need for relief societies. They exist because people recognize an obligation to help the poor financially, but are unwilling to give their time. The difficulty of raising adequate sums in particular cases seems to make them necessary. Most of the societies have adopted modern methods. Relief work should never be combined with charity organization work: the temptation to give relief could be too easily gratified. Relief societies should help chiefly chronic and emergency cases.

Mr. Alexander Johnson, Fort Wayne, Ind., said that we constantly tend to degenerate into relief-giving, which is the last form of charitable energy. So charity organization societies should not give relief; and they must beware of thinking that, when relief-work has been done by others, everything is done. Let us keep the upbuilding work and the relief-work separate and distinct.

Dr. Thomas M. Finney, St. Louis, said that their Provident Society had made great advances along the line of charity organization principles, and done much to encourage self-help and prevent pauperism. The society has a wood-yard, lodges for homeless men and women, sewing-rooms, etc. They sell cheap meals, the price of which nearly covered cost of material and service, but not rent.

Miss Susan P. Wharton, Philadelphia, opposed the selling of meals below cost, and referred to the experience of their food-kitchen.

Mr. Charles M. Hubbard, Cincinnati, said their charity organization society had a special fund for relief, for use in specially urgent cases. It worked well.

Mr. Edward T. Devine, New York, said that relief should be so organized that, when needed, it will come promptly and adequately. Relief societies should make their own investigations and decisions. A relief society in responding to recommendations, if a charity organization society, does not confer a favor on the latter, but is only doing its own share of the work.

Mr. Robert Treat Paine, Boston, said that the art of educating to self-help was the supreme thing. The charity organization society should never handle relief funds. The experience of his society proved that they diverted the energy of visitors from constructive

work. Phillips Brooks had characterized charity organization work by the words "science and sympathy."

Professor Samuel McC. Lindsay, Philadelphia, said that their charity organization society gave relief. So it was a rival to relief-giving societies, and could not get their co-operation. The result was lack of interest in the community and inadequate relief.

Mr. William I. Nichols, Brooklyn, said it was an absolute evil to combine relief-giving with charity organization work, but distinguished between relief-giving and relief by work.

Rev. James M. Pullman, Lynn, Mass., said that to sell a three-cent dinner for one cent was pure relief-giving. We must keep the high ideal of real charity separate from material relief of every kind.

Miss Mary E. Richmond, Baltimore, said that charity organization stood for something intangible, to mix it up with tangible things obscured its idea. It stands for the personal touch, painstaking inquiry, and accurate knowledge devoted to lifting up individuals. Relief-work and relief by work are necessary and splendid, but they are distinct from charity organization work.

Miss Maria M. Love, Buffalo, advocated the districting of cities and placing each district in care of a church, as in Buffalo.

Adjourned 12.30 P.M.

The third meeting was on Monday, May 23, at 10.30. A.M. The subject was "Charitable Employment Agencies."

Mr. Alexander Johnson, Indiana, said that the furnishing of employment is distinctly a relief measure. All relief measures are medicine, not food. Their use must not be allowed to become habit in recipients. Finding employment does not pertain to a charity organization society. The less a charity organization society does in the way of outside efforts, the less will it becloud its real purpose.

Mr. N. S. Rosenau, New York, described the work of the United Hebrew Charities of New York. Places were found outside the city, as well as in it.

Mr. Kjelyaarde, New York, thought free labor bureaus necessary, and described the work of the Cooper Union Labor Bureau. A special feature was finding work for old men. New places could not be made by the bureau; but it was right to displace less needy young men, in order to help the more needy old ones. Many men were sent to the country.

Mr. Ernest R. Bicknell, Chicago, said it was justifiable to find employment without charge to a limited extent, if as much care was used as with other cases. Only occasionally was it right to displace people for the benefit of more needy ones.

Mr. Robert D. McGonnigle, Pittsburg, said that labor bureaus should be kept free from charity, managed on business principles, and should find men work because they were capable, not because they were in need.

Mr. Edward J. Devine, New York, said that a bureau rendering free service and supported by contributions was not a business, but a philanthropy. Charitable employment agencies cannot find many places for the class who need relief. For them the personal work of friendly visitors is much more effective.

Mr. Charles M. Hubbard, Cincinnati, indorsed the last statement. The State free labor bureau in Cincinnati had the confidence of employers and employed. Its weakness is lack of means for investigation. Its chief work is in finding domestic service.

Mr. Alfred O. Crozier, Grand Rapids, said it was the duty of the community to furnish every possible facility at public expense for giving employment to the largest possible number of people.

Miss Emily G. Balch, Boston, said that in Germany a system of free town labor bureaus saves much waste of time and effort, prevents imposture, diminishes tramping, and makes it easier for honest men to find work.

Mr. John R. Cary, Baltimore, said that labor bureaus should be conducted on business principles, and laborers should pay for services rendered.

Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, New York, thought employment bureaus might do legitimate charitable work in finding peculiar fields to be filled by peculiar applicants, where no business will be interfered with, as in placing women with babies in the country. This saves the women and children, and fills a need felt in the country.

The following committee was appointed to amend the national statistical blank, with power to add to its number and to act: Philip W. Ayres, New York, *chairman;* Hugh F. Fox, Bayonne, N.J.; Joseph Lee, Boston; Samuel McC. Lindsay, Philadelphia; Mary E. Richmond, Baltimore; Richmond Mayo-Smith, New York; Zilpha D. Smith, Boston; Charles F. Weller, Chicago.

Adjourned at 12.45 P.M.

TWELFTH SESSION.

Wednesday, May 25.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 10.30 A.M.

The satisfaction expressed by every one connected with the Conference with the manner in which the president had discharged his duties was marked at this point by the gift to him of a silver-mounted gavel. The presentation was made by Nathaniel S. Rosenau, of the United Hebrew Charities Organization. Mr. Rosenau expressed the esteem in which Mr. Stewart is held in a few well-chosen words; and the president briefly thanked Mr. Rosenau and the members of the Conference generally for the gift.

On motion of Mr. Rosenau it was voted that the report of the Special Committee presented Tuesday night on the Charity Organization Society be printed in the Proceedings of the Conference.

The subject for the morning was then taken up, "The Prevention of Feeble-mindedness." The report of the Committee was read by Dr. J. C. Carson, chairman (page 294).

A paper on the "Prevention of Feeble-mindedness from a Legal and Moral Standpoint" was read by George H. Knight, M.D., of Lakeville, Conn. (page 304).

A paper on "The Remedial, Economical, and Ethical Value of Labor for the Defective and Dependent Classes" was read by William T. Spratling, M.D., of Sonyea, N.Y. (page 309).

DISCUSSION.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON.—Those dreadful census figures are not trustworthy. We really know little about the increase of epilepsy. We know little as to the permanent results of our work in institutions.

How is it that, while 75 per cent. of the insane in the United States are under proper care, only 10 per cent. of the idiotic have such care? Is it not true that the idiotic and imbecile are a more serious menace to the Commonwealth than the insane? Why, then, are so few cared for? Simply because, while the average citizen is afraid of the insane, he despises the idiot. If you and I knew that there were a hundred insane men, from one of the State Hospitals, turned loose on this street, we should go out of the hall in fear of personal violence. Yet only a small proportion of the insane are very dangerous. Most of them are no more dangerous than the imbeciles. But, because of the few dangerous ones, people at large are desperately afraid of all. So most of them are gathered in, as they should be; but so should the imbecile.

There is another reason for this strange neglect of the imbecile; and that is that the cost of caring for this particular class was originally based upon a theory that, if it had been correct, justified a high rate of expense. It was that, with proper training, most of them might be returned to society as self-supporting, self-directing members. The school for the imbecile was to be like the schools for the blind and deaf. Its scholars were to graduate into the outer world. If that had been practical, a high cost would have been reasonable. To make an idiot into a citizen by an expenditure of two hundred and fifty dollars a year for ten years would be good economy. But we have not done this, and now we know we cannot do it. Yet still in most places the high rate of cost continues.

Beginning with them young enough, I believe we can train fifty

per cent. of the imbeciles, so that they may, under wise control, earn their own living. This is what lies before us to do (and to convince the public that we are doing it) as a necessary preliminary to securing the means to care for all of them.

Last winter I was called before the Ways and Means Committee of the legislature of my State to make a statement as to the needs of the work of which I am superintendent. I told them there were six thousand feeble-minded in the State, and at least half of them ought to have State care. At the rate of cost which has prevailed until recently, I might as well have asked for a bridge to the moon as for buildings and appropriations sufficient for them all. But, if we can really show that half of them can be self-supporting, and can bring the cost of the others to a reasonable minimum, while we maintain such a standard of care that our citizens shall be proud of our institution, then, if we get the dear public to look a little ahead and consider remote benefits, State care for all may be a possibility.

It is true that a trained imbecile can seldom or never do the work of a whole man, but it does not take a whole man's work to earn a man's living. A laboring man with steady work can support himself, a wife, and family.

Dr. KNIGHT.— How large a family?

Mr. JOHNSON.— From five to nine, according to climate. One-third of a man, properly controlled, can earn his own living; and on this basis we can make a large number fully self-supporting. When we do this, and only then, may we hope to be allowed to have them all under such care that their number shall begin to diminish.

One word about marriage laws. You cannot suppress the evils we are discussing by legislative restrictions alone. Severe restriction of marriage has been tried for many years in Europe, in the hope of diminishing pauperism and beggary, but has always failed, its result being to make illegitimacy comparatively respectable. Still, I believe we should have laws forbidding the marriage of degenerates. As the facts concerning this class become known and right public sentiment develops, such laws might have some salutary effect. But the only hope for the diminution of the number of idiots and imbeciles seems to be their permanent segregation in celibate working communities.

Dr. A. C. ROGERS, Faribault, Minn.— How are we to obtain control of these people through life? That is the point difficult to manage. We might say, Commit them, put them into life custody. The trouble is that there are too many who object to this. Or we may say that they may be committed voluntarily. But in Minnesota we have had some bitter experience with people who should have been influenced by moral suasion, but could not be. Girls will be taken out of institutions by their parents, and allowed to come under perverting influences. The officers know that the children must be kept in an institution. If that could be done, much might be accomplished.

The last subject to be discussed by the Conference was the report of the Committee on Laws of Settlement, and the Right of Public Relief. Two papers were read,— one by Rev. F. H. Wines, LL.D., secretary of the State Board of Charities of Illinois, on the general subject (page 223), and one by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Concord, Mass., on the "Advantages of State Settlement Laws" (page 231).

President STEWART.— We have come to the closing hour. I desire to present, as the first speaker, General Brinkerhoff, who was President of the Seventh Conference, and who enjoys the personal friendship of President McKinley and our ex-Mayor Strong alike.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— I have been with this Conference for twenty-one years, and, with the exception of two meetings, have been in attendance from first to last. After an experience of twenty-one years, I ought to be able to make some comparisons between the past and the present. And I am very happy to say that, in point of numbers and in its deliverance, this has been the best. New York has done her best, and I am glad of it: first, for the Conference itself; second, for the people of New York. They have had an opportunity to meet and know the members of this Conference. I am proud of its success, because I am by birth a New Yorker. For two hundred and sixty years my kinsmen have been residents of this city.

The PRESIDENT.— You have a right of settlement here, then.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— Yes. I am glad to believe that the merchant princes of New York and of this country are understanding more and more their duty, and are devoting their lives to the good of mankind. Next year you are going to Ohio. Cincinnati is at the centre of population; and we expect to draw our delegations largely from the West and from the South, especially from the Mississippi Valley, which is the seat of empire now, and always will be. Of course, we shall expect the East to do as well for us as Ohio has for New York at the present Conference.

When I look back twenty-one years, and remember what has been done in connection with all the interests we represent, I thank God and take courage. The most delightful period of every year to me is the time when I look into the faces of the men and women that I see here. There are no nobler men and women alive. I think I add a year to my life whenever I come. This is a noble work that you are doing, no grander work can be done. And yet I want to allude to one thing. After doing all we can to relieve want, to stop the extension of crime, we must remember that, after all, the best thing that we can do is not to cure, but to prevent. We must attend more to prevention in the days that are to come. Some one said last night that 90 per cent. of the charity workers of this country were members of churches. But I say that every member of the Confer-

ence of Charities for twenty-one years has been religious,— every one of them. If there is any one that does not believe in God and the future life, and does not recognize the forces that rule the world, he is not a charity worker.

Now, though we part, we carry with us the memory of these days to bless us.

Rev. F. H. Wines, LL.D., was introduced as the President of the Tenth Conference.

Mr. Wines.— I can say all that I want to say in two words: Thank you. This Conference is more indebted to the citizens of New York than we can ever express. This great city is our city. It does not belong to the State of New York, but to the United States. It is a great cosmopolitan city, and the heart of the Union beats in unison with it. We came here with much hesitation. We are but a feeble band, doing obscure work, the importance of which is hardly appreciated by the public at large; and we feared that in the metropolis we should be absorbed and lost. But we accepted your most urgent and generous invitation; and we have never had anywhere a more cordial welcome, nor enjoyed ourselves better. I have not heard a breath of complaint. There has not been a jar. We go home feeling that we have been elevated by our association with you all, inspired to greater effort by what we have seen of your charitable work, and especially that we have received an indorsement which will give added value to this body in other cities to which we may go in future. We thank you, sir, and the city of New York, from the bottom of our hearts, for what you have done. We believe you have given us, not only the best, but the most profitable meeting we have ever held.

Hon. William P. Letchworth, for ten years president of the State Board of Charities of New York, and President of the Eleventh Conference of Charities and Correction, was introduced as one often referred to by all charity workers as the Lord Shaftesbury of America.

Mr. Letchworth.— *Mr. President and Members of the Conference*, — In looking back over the Conferences which I have attended, I can see that from the first there has been a gradual increase in the interest taken in them. Each Conference has been better than the one preceding it, and this is the best we have ever had. The papers presented have been of unusual interest. The discussions have been intelligent and instructive, and they have been conducted temperately and yet with spirit. As a whole, the Conference has set a mark that will be difficult for future Conferences to attain. I attribute this success, not only to the growing intelligence of the people

and increased interest taken in subjects of charity and reform, but largely to the indefatigable efforts put forth by our President. His zeal in this connection does not surprise me. Having worked with him for many years on the State Board of Charities, I know him as a man of broad and liberal sentiments, of large philanthropy, and one who gives close attention to the details of every duty. I am deeply grateful to him for this service to the cause of charity.

Although scarcely conscious of its unostentatious source, we have derived great enjoyment from the æsthetic influences that have surrounded us in the decorations of the places where we have met. For these, I learn, we are indebted to the good taste emanating from the lovely personality in the home of our worthy President.

To the resident members of the Conference, whose generous sympathy has been enlisted in this memorable event, and to those distinguished citizens whose active co-operation has contributed in no small measure to the success of this quarter centennial, I wish to acknowledge my personal obligations.

Mr. H. H. Hart, General Secretary of the Conference and President of the Twentieth Conference of Charities and Corrections, was next introduced.

Mr. HART.— No one outside the Local Committee can have as clear an idea of the work that has been done by President Stewart and his coadjutors in preparation for this Conference as the Secretary of the Conference. The mechanical part alone, including the decorations, was no small thing to look after. The decorations of Grace Church, so beautiful and appropriate, were a part of the work done by this committee. The preparation of the beautiful medal was a matter of study by the President, and the best artist who could be found in this country was intrusted with the work. The correspondence of the Local Secretary has been steadily conducted for months with a corps of clerks, preparing the way for this Conference. The magnificent audiences, especially at Grace Church, where as many people as attended were turned away, the large attendance at the section meetings, have been unparalleled in the history of this Conference. We have seen this Conference go into a city and cause hardly a ripple. That we should have such audiences here means that some one has quietly, patiently, and assiduously cultivated this field. The membership of the Conference has been increased by at least three hundred largely through the personal solicitation of the President of the Conference. In all my experience in such gatherings I have never seen a combination of such broad grasp of the general subject and power of organization with minute and patient attention to details.

The real test of a conference is the impress it leaves behind.

Fourteen months ago we held a little meeting in New Orleans. About fifty of us went down there. As a result of that meeting, the Charity Organization Society which had been established there was put firmly on its feet; a Prison Association was organized, which has done effective work in reforming abuses in Louisiana; the new State constitution provides for a State Conference of Charities and Corrections; the lease system has been abolished, and free kindergartens established. All these may be traced in great measure to the influence of the New Orleans Conference.

The State of Minnesota has been a different State since 1886, when this Conference met there. Its influence is felt in the legislature and in the State institutions to this day. We all have been here in vain, unless the State Board of Charities and the State Charities Aid Association are strengthened, unless Mr. Devine and his assistants in the Charity Organization Society do better work, unless Mr. Brace and his associates in the Children's Aid Society do better work, for our having been here.

May the influence of the Twenty-fifth National Conference of Charities and Correction long survive!

Mr. Lucius C. Storrs, of Michigan, was introduced as the President of the Twenty-first Conference.

Mr. STORRS.— There is very little left to be said, for my predecessors have expressed my sentiments in an admirable manner. The reason that the Conference of Charities and Correction has been such a success is that the work has been done by specialists. The people who have taken this thing in charge are all specialists in the line of organizing and carrying on great enterprises of this character. One thing I am specially thankful for, and that is that the Michigan Conference preceded this one. I do not mean to make any invidious comparisons, for we had a fine Conference at Grand Rapids; but with all my heart I pity our Ohio friends who must follow one so completely satisfactory and enjoyable in every detail as has been this Twenty-fifth Conference.

Mr. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin, was introduced as the President of the Twenty-third Conference.

Mr. WRIGHT.— This Conference has been the outgrowth first of the organization of the State Boards of Charities, which have been growing as our country has been growing. As the demand of the public for private charities has been growing, there has been greater thought and study on these subjects, and there has sprung up a more rational and philosophical philanthropy. This Conference is unique. I do not know that there is anything similar to it in any other country. We have been gradually attracting to ourselves

various forms of philanthropy. Beginning as we did simply with members of the State Boards of Charities and their officers, and the superintendents of State institutions, we have constantly added to our membership. When the charity organization societies sprang into life,— the first of which is younger than this Conference,— they joined with us. Later those interested in saving children, both delinquent and dependent children, were attracted to us. Those interested in the care of the insane and the feeble-minded and those interested in prison reform have been frequently heard here, and will be again. Later on several other forms of philanthropic thought and effort have been represented in this Conference of Philanthropy, especially the study of sociology in colleges and social settlements in cities. At the close of this Conference we recognize more than ever before that there is now made a still greater demand for prevention rather than cure, for practical and rational charity not even estimated. The volumes of Proceedings are growing increasingly valuable from year to year. They form a library of reference for a large number of colleges in which the study of charities is carefully pursued; and these volumes stand as great encyclopædias on the subjects, which they must use in pursuing their studies.

Mr. Alexander Johnson, of Indiana, was introduced as the President of the Twenty-fourth Conference.

Mr. JOHNSON.— The President has kindly asked me to say the last word, as I did the first, for this Conference. I referred at the opening meeting to our President's most distinguished friends on the platform as a shelf of blue china, and felt how great a task it was for us that during the whole Conference we must live up to the high level they had set. But, as I look at this line of ex-Presidents on the platform beside me, I cannot help saying, What a delightful collection of antiques the President has shown us at his parting, and what a consolation for the rest of us it is that, in about ten minutes, he, too, will be beside us on the ex-Presidential shelf.

Dear friends, it is hard to say good-by. We part full of love for each other and our kind and gracious hosts in New York who have given us such a beautiful Conference, one that will always live in our memory. We remember many partings, but many meetings also; and we hope we may all meet again next year and many, many years to come.

President STEWART.— *Members of the Conference,*— You promoted me from the ranks at comparatively tender years to take a place among the fathers of the Conference; and for the past week my relation with you all, young and old, has been in a sense parental. I remember to have heard some years ago from the lips of a well-known superintendent of a reform school in England that, in his opinion, the parental relation must exist between the superintend-

ent of such an institution and its inmates, in order that their genuine reformation might be secured, and that experience in England had led to the conviction that this relation could not reasonably be claimed to exist over more than three hundred inmates. I believe that this statement is profoundly true; and therefore, measured by its standard, my influence upon the men and women self-intrusted, or committed by some organized body for this brief period of time to my care, must have fallen far short of success by reason of the great excess of your numbers, for no general session has been attended by less than three hundred members, and many of them by twice that number.

It has never before been my privilege to preside over the deliberations of so large a body. Thanks perhaps to the prudential measures I have taken in being supported at all times on this platform by at least one of your ex-Presidents, and usually by several of them, and that the chairmen of your different committees have also given me their valuable assistance in preserving order, your behavior has been so uniformly good that the tremors of anticipation with which I entered upon the discharge of my duties have not been justified.

Record should be made of the remarkable and gratifying fact that of the twelve living ex-Presidents of the Conference, eleven have attended these sessions,— General Roeliff Brinkerhoff, of Mansfield, Ohio, President of the Seventh Conference, Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Concord, Mass., President of the Eighth Conference, Dr. Frederick H. Wines, of Springfield, Ill., President of the Tenth Conference, Mr. William P. Letchworth, of Portage, N.Y., President of the Eleventh Conference, Mr. Philip C. Garrett, of Philadelphia, Pa., President of the Twelfth Conference, Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of Canandaigua, N.Y., President of the Fifteenth Conference, Mr. Hastings H. Hart, of St. Paul, Minn., President of the Twentieth Conference, Mr. Lucius C. Storrs, of Lansing, Mich., President of the Twenty-first Conference, Mr. Robert Treat Paine, of Boston, Mass., President of the Twenty-second Conference, Mr. Albert O. Wright, of Madison, Wis., President of the Twenty-third Conference, and Mr. Alexander Johnson, of Fort Wayne, Ind., President of the Twenty-fourth Conference. Only one, the venerable Mr. Andrew E. Elmore, of Wisconsin, President of the Ninth Conference, and now in his eighty-fifth year, was unable to be present. We sincerely regret his enforced absence, and assure him of our sympathy and regard.

War with Spain has naturally diverted some attention from the Conference which it would have received were our country at peace. The President of the United States and the Governor of this State both intimated to me that they would be glad to accept the invitations of the Conference, and of the Local Committee, which were placed in their hands, to attend and address the quarter-centennial celebration at Carnegie Hall, if the performance of

their public duties left them free to do so. You can readily imagine how great their responsibilities must be at this time of national crisis; and, while we regret their absence, it would be unreasonable to have expected their presence. Had they attended the celebration, thousands would have failed of admission to the great auditorium, which was filled without them.

The Conference is, in my opinion, under lasting obligation to the respectable daily newspapers of this city, which, notwithstanding the popular excitement and the pressing demands of war news for admission to their columns, have daily devoted much space to the intelligent consideration of the subjects which we have discussed. This handsome treatment on their part has doubtless increased the attendance at our sessions, and by giving wide publicity to our proceedings has multiplied our opportunities for usefulness.

We have heard little at this Conference of ethics by name, and even less of altruism. This has been an extremely practical Conference; and, as these words are not clearly understood by all, we can dispense with their use. But the spirit which lies hidden in each has been the moving spirit of this meeting. We owe to an emanation from the rich alluvial deposit of soft gray matter which goes to make up the fertile brain of my genial predecessor in office, Mr. Johnson, of Indiana, of whom it can never be truly said that we suffer from "too much Johnson," a definition of the character of this body. In every community aristocracies take their place. We have intellectual aristocracies, ecclesiastical aristocracies, aristocracies of art, of literature, and social aristocracy. Mr. Johnson, in a felicitous expression, has claimed that we of this Conference belong to "the aristocracy of usefulness." This may embrace the elect from all the others, and doubtless includes many members of each. May its tribe increase!

Your sessions in this metropolitan city have been full of interest and usefulness to our citizens; and, as we cordially welcomed your coming, so now we wish you leaving, individually and as an organization, personal prosperity and long continuance, with increasing beneficent results, of the humanitarian efforts in which you are engaged.

The President adjourned the Conference at 10.30 P.M., without day.

TREASURER'S REPORT FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPT. 30, 1898.

LEVI L. BARBOUR, *Treasurer, in account with* THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

1897.	*Dr.*		
Oct. 1.	To Balance on hand		$987.07
	Cash received from sales of Proceedings	$1,288.73	
	Cash received from membership fees and subscriptions to the *Bulletin*	3,782.85	
	Cash received from advertising	68.00	
	Cash received from Local Committee	1,025.00	
	Cash received from interest	27.67	6,192.25
			$7,179.32

	Cr.		
	By Cash paid for publishing Proceedings	$1,791.30	
	Cash paid for publishing section Proceedings	260.00	
	Cash paid for publishing *Bulletin*	1,050.41	
	Cash paid for printing, etc.	481.36	
	Cash paid for postage, etc.	488.05	
	Cash paid for travelling expenses of Secretary	167.20	
	Cash paid for salaries, etc.:		
	Salary of Secretary (16 months) $687.00		
	Salary of editors and reporters 423.20		
	Salaries of clerks 506.06	1,616.26	
	Cash paid for office furniture	127.58	
	Cash paid for office rent	50.00	
	Cash paid for miscellaneous expenses	54.27	
	Cash refunded to Local Committee	25.00	
	Cash advanced for Secretary's expenses	100.00	$6,211.43
1898.			
Sept. 30.	By Balance in bank		967.89
			$7,179.32

TREASURER'S COMPARATIVE STATEMENT.

	Year ending Sept. 30, 1896.		Year ending Sept. 30, 1897.		Year ending Sept. 30, 1898.	
RECEIPTS.						
Balance on hand beginning year		$1,536.15		$1,047.84		$987.07
Cash from sales of Proceedings	$1,521.87		$1,538.85		$1,288.73	
Cash from membership fees and subscriptions to the *Bulletin*	2,464.00		2,384.56		3,782.85	
Cash from advertising			179.75		68.00	
Cash from Local Committee	882.77		1,000.00		1,025.00	
Cash from interest	33.35	4,901.99	19.18	5,122.34	27.67	6,192.25
		$6,438.14		$6,170.18		$7,179.32
DISBURSEMENTS.						
Paid for publishing Proceedings,	$2,273.05		$1,989.29		$2,051.30	
Paid for publishing *Bulletin*	730.00		1,286.62		1,050.41	
Paid for printing, etc.	480.50		264.86		481.36	
Paid for postage, etc.	644.41		561.12		488.05	
Paid for salaries, etc.	1,216.44		1,067.68		1,783.46	
Paid for office furniture					127.58	
Paid for miscellaneous expenses,	45.90	5,390.30	13.54	5,183.11	129.27	6,211.43
Paid for cash advances					100.00	
Balance on hand, closing year		$1,047.84		$987.07		$967.89

STATEMENT OF RESOURCES AND LIABILITIES TAKEN FROM THE BOOKS OF THE GENERAL SECRETARY.

	Sept. 30, 1895.		Sept. 30, 1896.		Sept. 30, 1897.		Sept. 30, 1898.	
RESOURCES.								
Cash on hand		$1,536		$1,064		$987		$968
Accounts receivable:								
State Boards	$517		$985		$721		$588	
Miscellaneous	33	550	158	1,143	166	887	466	1,054
Proceedings	$1,611		$1,859		$1,848		$1,940	
Electro plates	197	$1,808	250	2,109	300	2,148	300	2,240
Office furniture								176
Total		$3,894		$4,316		$4,022		$4,438
LIABILITIES.								
Proceedings due:								
Members at 85 cents	$788		$833		$725			
Purchasers at 85 cents	425	$1,213	889	$1,722	576	$1,301		$1,619
Accounts payable		100		186		323	$89	1,708
Total		$1,313		$1,908		$1,624		
NET RESOURCES		$2,581		$2,408		$2,398		$2,730

Report of copies of Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction on hand Oct. 1, 1898:—

Year.	*No.*	*Year.*	*No.*
1874	109	1888	276
1877	20	1889	753
1878	23	1890	169
1879	4	1891	238
1881	16	1892	912
1882	31	1893	109
1883	49	1894	486
1884	167	1895	405
1885	51	1896	241
1886	36	1897	474
1887	277	Total	4,849

LIST OF MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

N.B.—Members who were in attendance at New York are marked.*

ALABAMA.

Birmingham.

Ward, Mrs. Thos.

Livingston.

Tutwiler, Miss Julia S., Principal, Ala. Normal College for Girls.

Tuscaloosa.

Phillips, Rev. A. L., D.D., Pres., Southern Conference of Char. and Cor.
Searcy, J. T., M.D., Supt., Bryce Insane Hosp.

ALASKA.

Jackson, Rev. Sheldon, D.D., Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

CALIFORNIA.

Eldridge.

Osborne, Dr. A. E., Supt., Cal., Home for the Care and Training of Feeble-minded Chdn.

Los Angeles.

Lindley, Walter, M.D., Supt., Lindley's Private Surgical Hosp., 315 W. 6th St.

Oakland.

Borland, Mrs. Sarah C., Vice-Pres., Asso. Char., 1157 Franklin St.

Pasadena.

Conger, Rev. E. L., D.D., Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc.

San Francisco.

Associated Charities of San Francisco.
Banning, B. R., 305 Larkin St.
Brown, Dr. Charlotte Blake, 1212 Sutter St.
Bunnell, Jas. S., Gen'l Auditor and Cashier, Wells, Fargo & Co. Exp.
Davis, Horace, 1800 Broadway.
*Flint, Mrs. Agnes W., Registrar, Asso. Char., 601 Commercial St.
George, Miss Julia, 749 Sutter St.
Levy, Meyer H., Sec., Eureka Benev. Ass'n., 105 Stockton St.
*Maxwell, Geo. H., Sec'y, Citizens' Colonization Committee, 801 Spreckels Bldg.
Symmes, Frank J., 725 Mission St.

Santa Paula.

Blanchard, Nathan W.
Haugh, Miss Ione.

Stanford University.

Fetter, Prof. Frank A., Leland Stanford Univ.
Smith, Mrs. Albert W., Asst. Prof., Economics and Sociology.

COLORADO.

Boulder.

Baker, Jas. H., Pres., Univ. of Colorado.
Williams, Mrs. Harriet E., Sec'y, Bd. of County Visitors.

Denver.

Appel, J. S., Member, State Bd. of Char. and Cor.
Baker, Mrs. E. B., State Supt., Prison Work, W. C. T. U., 1358 Gilpin St.
George, Mrs. S. Izetta, Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc'y, 32 Court House.
Platt, Mrs. Sarah S., Pres., State Bd. of Char. and Cor., Hotel Metropole.
Stonaker, C. L., Sec'y, State Bd. of Char. and Cor.
Tyner, Paul, Gen'l Sec'y, Civic Church, 34 Masonic Temple.
Woman's Club, Reform Department.

Golden.

Olds, Barnard L., Supt., State Indus. Sch.

Montclair.

Benthall, Mrs. E. D. W., State Indus. Sch. for Girls.

Pueblo.

Adams, Alva, Governor, Member, State Bd. of Char. and Cor.
McDonald, Mrs. W. H., Sec'y, Asso. Char., 223 Santa Fé Ave.
Thombs, P. R., M.D., Med. Supt., State Ins. Asyl.

CONNECTICUT.

Cromwell.

Hallock, W. B., M.D.

Danbury.

Merritt, Chas. H., Vice-Pres., Danbury Relief Soc.

Deep River.

*Spencer, George F., Member, State Bd. of Char., State Delegate.

Fairfield.

Glover, Mrs. Emily H., Fairfield Co. Home for Neg. and Dep. Chdn. at Norwalk, and Conn. Chdn.'s Aid Soc., Hartford.

Hartford.

Dennis, Rodney, Pres., Conn. Humane Soc., 51 Prospect St.
*Down, Dr. Edwin A., Member, Bd. of State Char., 703 Asylum Ave.
*Green, D. I., Supt., Char. Org. Soc., 234 Pearl St.
Greene, Col. Jacob L.
*Haas, L. B., Com. of Char., Box 720.
*Hall, Miss Mary, Member, State Bd. of Char., 40 Pratt St.
Hartranft, Chester D., D.D., Pres., Hartford Theol. Seminary, 1507 Broad St.
Howe, Harmon G., M.D., Exec. Com., Hartford Hosp., 137 High St.
*Huntington, Rev. John T., Pres., Conn. Chdn.'s Aid Soc.
Merriam, Prof. Alex. R., Prof. in Hartford Theol. Seminary; Director, Char. Org. Soc., 134 Collins St.
Stearns, Dr. H. P., Supt., Hartford Retreat, 30 Washington St.

Lakeville.

*Knight, Dr. George H., Supt., Conn. Sch. for Imbeciles.
*Knight, Mrs. George H., Conn. Sch. for Imbeciles.
*Knight, Mrs. Mary F., Conn. Sch. for Imbeciles.

Litchfield.

Buel, John L., M.D.
Perkins, J. Deming.
Woodruff, Geo. M.

Middletown.

*Fairbank, Wm. G., Supt., Conn. Indus. Sch. for Girls.
*Fairbank, Mrs. Wm. G., Asst. Supt. and Visiting Agt., Conn. Indus. Sch. for Girls.
Fisher, Willard, Prof. of Economics and Social Science, Wesleyan Univ., 14 Observatory Hall.
Noble, Dr. Henry S., Asst. Supt., Hosp. for Insane.
Whittlesey, H. C., Pres., State Bd. of Char.

New Britain.

Camp, David N., Pres., Erwin Home, 9 Camp St.
*Finch, Alfred S., Agt., Char. Org. Soc. 58 W. Main St.
Platt, F. G., Char. Org. Soc.

New Haven.

*Bacon, Miss Rebekah G., Member, State Bd. of Char.
Baldwin, Henry, Custodian of American History, Library Americana, 260 Crown St.
Blackman, Rev. Wm. F., Prof. of Christian Ethics, Yale Univ., 253 St. Ronan St.
*Brewer, Prof. Wm. H., Pres. State Bd. Health; Mgr., County Home for Neglected Chdn.
Cowles, Mrs. Timothy, Treas., Home for the Friendless, P.O. Box 817.
Farnam, Prof. Henry W., Yale Univ.; Director, Org. Char. Ass'n, 43 Hillhouse Ave.
Fields, Wm. T.
Fisher, Irving, Asst. Prof., Political Econ., Yale Univ., 460 Prospect St.
Lowe, Walter I., Instructor in History, Sheffield Scientific Sch. of Yale Univ., 238 Whalley Ave.
Porter, Joseph, Chairman Com., Welcome Hall Mission, 215 Whitney Ave.
*Preston, Sherwood, Agt., Org. Char. Ass'n, 200 Orange St.
Sheldon, Chas. A., Director, Org. Char. Ass'n.
Welch, Pierce N.

Norwalk.

Smith, Dr. Edwin.

Norwich.

*Swan, George W., City Missionary.

Plantsville.

*Smith, Henry D., Pres., Bd. of Directors, Conn. Indus. Sch.
*Smith, Mrs. Henry D.

Ridgefield.

Lounsbury, George.

Rockville.

*James, Rev. J. H., Sec'y, Temperance Union.

Stafford.

Pinney, Mrs. E. C., Sec'y of Town Com. for County Home.

Waterbury.

Davenport, Rev. John G., D.D., 22 Holmes Ave.
*Kellogg, Chas. P., Sec'y, State Bd. of Char.
Wells, Thos. D., Sec'y, State Bd. of Prison Directors, 67 Chestnut Ave.

Westport.

Ruland, Dr. F. D., Sanitarium.

DELAWARE.

Wilmington.

Associated Charities of Wilmington.
Bancroft, Wm. P., Sec'y Trustees, Delaware Hosp.
Warner, Mrs. Emalea P., Delegate, Asso. Char., 1202 Delaware Ave.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Washington.

Barlow, Mrs. Kate B., Supt., Indus. Home Sch. of the Dist. of Columbia, 32d St. Extension.
*Barrett, Mrs. Kate Waller, Supt., Nat'l Florence Crittenton Mission, 218 3d St., N.W.
Dykes, Mrs. A. V., Principal Teacher, Chdn.'s and Newsboys' Aid Soc., 230 C St., N.W.
*Hart, Wm. H. H., Principal, Hart Farm Sch., District Delegate, 216 Arthur Pl.
*Hosmer, Miss Katherine, Manager, Asso. Char.; District Delegate; 1330 L St.
*Janney, B. T., Chairman, Bd. of Trustees, Asso. Char.; Chairman, Committee on Char. and Cor. of the Board of Trade, 1671 31st St.
*Jones, Wm. A., Commissioner, Indian Affairs, 472 Louisiana Ave.
*Lewis, Herbert W., Supt. of Char. of the District of Columbia, 464 Louisiana Ave.
Lowndes, James, 1505 Pennsylvania Ave.
*MacDonald, Arthur, Specialist, U. S. Bureau of Education.

Washington, *Continued*—

Macfarland, H. B. F., Cor. Sec'y for District of Columbia, 1406 G St.
Moore, Frederic L., Asso. Char., 1505 Pennsylvania Ave.
Pellew, Henry E., 1637 Massachusetts Ave.
* Randall, Miss Mildred, Newsboys' and Chdn.'s Aid Soc'y, 230 C St., N.W.
* Spencer, Mrs. Sara A., Trustee, Nat'l Homœopathic Hosp.; Prin., Spencerian College; District Delegate.
* Wilson, Miss B. Mordaunt, Supt., Newsboy's and Chdn.'s Aid Soc., 230 C St., N.W.
* Wilson, Geo. S., Gen. Sec'y, Asso. Char., 811 G St., N.W.
Wimer, J. B., 608 13th St.
Woodbury, Mrs. Anna L., Pres., Mission Sch. of Cookery and Housework, 1319 Mass. Ave.
* Woodward, S. W., Vice-Pres., Asso. Char., 2015 Wyoming Ave.
Woodward, Wm. Redin (died June 27, 1898).
Wright, Carroll D., U. S. Com'r of Labor.

GEORGIA.

Atlanta.

Crumley, H. L., 200 Oak St., Agt. N. Ga. Conf. Orph. Home.

Augusta.

* Dempsey, Hugh, Pres., Bd. of Char.

ILLINOIS.

Anna.

Stoker, W. A., Supt., Ill. Southern Hosp. for Insane.

Aurora.

Charity Council of Aurora.
Eurich, Mrs. Ernst F., 62 N. 4th St.

Chester.

* Auten, Dr. Frank A., Supt., Ill. Asyl. for Criminal Insane.

Chicago.

Adams, Mrs. Geo. E., 530 Belden Ave.
Banning Ephraim, 685 Washington Boulevard.
* Bicknell, Ernest P., Gen. Supt., Bureau of Asso. Char., 410 Masonic Temple.
* Cook, Miss Mary, Clerk, National Conference of Charities and Correction, 115 Monroe St.
Dewey, Richard, M.D., Phys. in charge, Sanitarium at Wauwatosa, Wis.; Clinical Prof., Mental Diseases at N.W. Univ., 34 Washington St.
Doud, Mrs. L. B., Pres., Erring Woman's Refuge, 3257 Michigan Ave.
Felton, Chas. E., 3153 Calumet Ave.
Flower, Mrs. J. M., Ill. Training Sch. for Nurses, 67 Lake Shore Drive.
Frank, Henry L., Pres., Jewish Training Sch. and Orph. Soc., 1608 Prairie Ave.
* Gallwey, Rev. N. B. W., Warden, Clybourn Ave. Social Settlement, 279 Clybourn Ave.
Gross, Mrs. S. E., 48 Lake Shore Drive.
Harris, D. J., 3145 Vernon Ave.
* Hart, Hastings H., LL.D., Supt., Ill. Chdn.'s Home and Aid Soc.; Gen'l Sec'y, National Conference of Charities and Correction, 115 Monroe St.
* Henderson, Chas. R., D.D., Prof. of Sociology, Univ. of Chicago.
Hobbs, Mrs. J. B., Mgr., Home for the Friendless and Methodist Deaconess Aid Soc., 343 La Salle Ave.
* Low, Miss Minnie F., Supt., 7th Ward Dist., Bureau of Asso. Char., 4536 Prairie St.
Mack, Julian W., Sec'y, United Hebrew Char., 108 La Salle St.
MacVeagh, Franklin, Pres., Bureau of Asso. Char., Lake St. and Wabash Ave.
* Nicholes, Miss Anna E., Asst. Dist. Supt., Bureau of Asso. Char., 308 W. 63d St.
Pettersen, C. A., Teacher, Jefferson High School, 901 W. North Ave.
Reed, Col. N. A., The Keeley League, 269 Dearborn St.
Reynolds, Arthur R., M.D., Com'r of Health, 36 Washington St.
Rosenberg, Jacob, Director, United Hebrew Char., 1620 Michigan Ave.
Rosenfeld, Maurice, United Hebrew Char.; Chicago Relief and Aid Soc., 78 5th Ave.
Rosenthal, Julius, German Old People's Home, 3247 Wabash Ave.
Shortall, John G., Pres., Ill. Humane Soc.; Pres., Amer. Humane Ass'n., 1600 Prairie Ave.
Sturges, Miss Marion Delafield, 107 Lincoln Park Boulevard.
Sturm, Adolph, Supt., House of Correction.
Taylor, Graham, Prof. of Sociology, Chicago Theol. Seminary.
* Weller, Chas. F., Dist. Supt., Bureau of Asso. Char., 181 W. Madison St.
White, Rev. R. A., Pres., Ill. Chdn.'s Home and Aid Soc., 6800 Perry Ave.
Woodbridge, John, 604 Reaper Block.
Woods, Mrs. Helen M., Supt., Erring Women's Refuge, 5024 Indiana Ave.

Decatur

Gilbert, Miss Emma M., Dist. Supt., Ill. Chdn.'s Home and Aid Soc., 434 N. Broadway.

Dwight.

Broughton, Russell, M.D., Keeley Institute.

Evanston.

* McMullen, Mrs. Kate V., Chairman, Child and Home Dept., Woman's Club.
Rice, W. H., 1119 Judson Ave.

Geneseo.

Miller, Rev. M. J., Trustee, Antioch College at Yellow Springs, Ohio.

Geneva.

* Amigh, Mrs. Ophelia L., Supt., State Home for Juvenile Female Offenders.

Hospital.

* Krohn, Wm. O., Psychologist, Eastern Hosp. for Insane.
* Stearns, Wm. G., M.D., Supt., Eastern Hosp. for Insane.

Joliet.

McClaughry, Maj. R. W., Warden, State Penitentiary, 1900 Collins St.

Lincoln

* Athon, Dr. W. L., Supt., Asyl. for Feebleminded Chdn.

Ottawa.

Catlin, Thomas D.

Princeton.

* Richardson, Mrs. C. J., Sec'y, Bd. of Trustees, State Home for Juvenile Female Offenders.

Rockford.

Talcott, Wm. A., Sec. and Treas., Rockford Hosp. Ass'n., 436 N. Main St.
Talcott, Mrs. Wm. A., Vice-Pres., Ladies' Union Aid Soc., 436 N. Main St.

Rock Island.

Stewart, J. W.

South Evanston.

Miller, Miss Katharine S., Supt., Ill. Indus Sch. for Girls.

Springfield.

*Eggleston, Miss Olive A., Supt., Asso. Char., 827 So. 5th St.
Shutt, Mrs. W. E.
*Wines, Fred H., LL.D., Sec'y, Bd. Pub. Char.

Virginia.

Wilson, Miss Kate.

INDIANA.

Bloomington.

Millis, H. A.

Evansville.

*Rein, Miss Carrie, Gen. Sec'y, Asso. Char.
Wilson, Miss Mary T, Pres., State Conf. of Char. and Cor.

Ft. Wayne.

*Ellison, Thos. E., Member, Bd. of State Char.
Guild, Mrs. Helen F., Pres., Asso. Char., 372 Fairfield Ave.
Harper, Mrs. Mary Rowan, Sec'y, Bd. of Trustees, Sch. for Feeble-minded Youth, 76 E. Washington St.
*Johnson, Alexander, Supt., Sch. for Feeble-minded Youth.

Franklin.

Bergen, Miss Margaret, Matron, Johnson Co. Orphans' Home.

Geneva.

*Hale, S. W.

Indianapolis.

*Blanchard, Mrs. Frank, Pres., Girls' Indus. Sch., 540 N. Meridan St.
*Butler, Amos W., Sec'y, Bd. of State Char.
Duy, Mrs. Geo. C., 126 E. Ohio St.
*Elder, John R., Member, Bd. of State Char.
Gavisk, Rev. Francis H., St. Vincent de Paul Soc., 126 W. Georgia St.
Grout, Chas. S., Gen. Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc.
Harrison, Mrs. Benj., 674 Delaware St.
Keely, Miss Sarah F., Supt., Reform Sch. for Girls and Woman's Prison.
McGinnis, Geo. F.
McKernan, Mrs. Susan, St. Vincent de Paul Soc.
Peelle, Mrs. Margaret F., Bd. St. Char.
Mount, Jas. A., Governor, Pres. *ex officio*, Bd. of State Char.
Spink, Mary A., M.D., Member, Bd. of State Char.
Streeter, Wm. B., State Agent, Bd. of State Char.

Irvington.

Brown, Prof. D. C., Member, Bd. of State Char.

Jeffersonville.

Zulauf, Miss Hannah, Sec'y, Orphans' Home Soc.

Knightstown.

Graham, A. H., Supt., Soldiers' and Sailors' Orph. Home.

Lafayette.

*Lancaster, Mrs. H. H., 2d Vice-Pres., Indiana Chdn.'s Home Soc., Littleton St.

Plainfield.

*Charlton, T. J., Supt., Ind. Ref. Sch. for Boys.

Plymouth.

Reeve, Chas. H., Director, Nat'l Prison Ass'n.

Richmond.

Nicholson, Timothy, Member, Bd. of State Char.
*Smith, S. E., M.D., Med. Supt., Eastern Ind. Hosp. for Insane.

Terre Haute.

*Alden, Lyman P., Supt., Rose Orphan Home; City Delegate.
Arnold, Helen, 330 S. 6th St.
Ball, Wm. C., Member, Bd. of Control, Indiana Ref. Sch. for Boys.
Davis, Sydney B., Pres., Soc. for Org. Char.; Pres., Bd. of Chdn.'s Guardians.
*Harper, Miss Nannie, Gen. Sec'y, Soc. for Org. Char., 914 Chestnut St.
Palmeteer, Mrs. A. E., 912 Chestnut St.
*Pense, Mrs. Louise, Soc. for Org. Char., 115 S. 2d St.

Winchester.

Howard, John, Supt., James Moorman Orph. Home.
Moorman, T. F., Treas., James Moorman Orph. Home.

IOWA.

Burlington.

Baldwin, W. W.
*Hutton, Miss Martha L., Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc.
Millard, Mrs. F. A., Asst. Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc.
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Peter Caldwell.....Louisville, Ky.
William C. Ball.....Terre Haute, Ind.
Mrs. Ophelia L. Amigh.....Geneva, Ill.
Franklin H. Briggs.....Rochester, N.Y.
T. F. Chapin.....Westboro, Mass.
Miss Grace Johnson.....Red Wing, Minn.
James Allison.....Cincinnati, Ohio.
Mrs. A. M. Bliss.....Saginaw, Mich.
W. G. Fairbank.....Middletown, Conn.
Ira Otterson.....Jamesburg, N.J.
Frank Woods.....Baltimore, Md.

On Duty of the State to Dependent Children.

Mrs. E. E. Williamson.....Elizabeth, N.J.
Ernest Bicknell.....Chicago, Ill.
Dr. Daniel C. Gilman.....Baltimore, Md.
J. J. Kelso.....Toronto.
G. A. Merrill.....Owatonna, Minn.
Thomas M. Mulry.....New York.
Mrs. Stephen Baldwin.....Detroit, Mich.
J. P. Byers.....Columbus, Ohio.
Michel Heymann.....New Orleans, La.
Mrs. H. M. Laughlin.....Boston, Mass.
Miss M. E. Richmond.....Baltimore, Md.
Byron C. Mathews.....Newark, N.J.

On Prevention of Feeble-mindedness from a Legal and Moral Standpoint.

James C. Carson, M.D.....Syracuse, N.Y.
Mary J. Dunlap, M.D.....Vineland, N.J.
George H. Knight, M.D.....Lakeville, Conn.
A. C. Rogers, M.D.....Faribault, Minn.
M. W. Barr, M.D.....Elwyn, Pa.
Alexander Johnson.....Fort Wayne, Ind.
George Mogridge, M.D.....Glenwood, Ia.
A. W. Wilmarth, M.D...Chippewa Falls, Wis.

MEMBERS AND OFFICERS OF STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

COLORADO.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Room 1, State Capitol, Denver.

[Established by Public Act of the Laws of 1891, approved March 19, 1891.]

Gov. Alva Adams, *ex officio* ..... Denver
Mrs. Sarah S. Platt ..... Denver
Chancellor Wm. F. McDowell.. University Park
J. S. Appel ..... Denver
Mrs. N. P. Hill ..... Denver
Rev. Thos. H. Malone ..... Denver
T. H. Devine ..... Pueblo

Officers of the Board.

Mrs. Sarah S. Platt, *President* ..... Denver
Chancellor Wm. F. McDowell, *Vice-President*, University Park
C. L. Stonaker, *Secretary*, State Capitol, Denver.

CONNECTICUT.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

Room 80, Capitol, Hartford.

[Established by Chapter 45, Public Acts of Laws of 1873, passed July 1, 1873.]

H. C. Whittlesey ..... Middletown
George F. Spencer ..... Deep River
Miss Mary Hall ..... Hartford
Dr. Edwin A. Down ..... Hartford
Miss Rebekah G. Bacon ..... New Haven

Officers of the Board.

H. C. Whittlesey, *President* ..... Middletown
Miss Rebekah G. Bacon, *Agent for County Temporary Homes* ..... New Haven
Miss Mary Hall, *Agent for County Temporary Homes* ..... Hartford
Charles P. Kellogg, *Secretary and General Agent* ..... Waterbury

GEORGIA.

THE PRISON COMMISSION OF GEORGIA.

Atlanta.

[Established by Acts of 1897, passed December 21, 1897.]

Joseph S. Turner ..... Eatonton
Thomas Eason ..... McRae
Clement A. Evans ..... Atlanta

Officers of the Commission.

Joseph S. Turner, *Chairman* ..... Eatonton
Douglas Glessner, *Secretary.*
Jacob C. Moore ..... Wardin

ILLINOIS.

THE BOARD OF STATE COMMISSIONERS OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

State House, Springfield.

[Established by an Act of Legislature, approved April 9, 1869.]

J. C. Corbus, M.D.....Mendota
R. D. Lawrence.....Springfield
Julia C. Lathrop.....Rockford
William J. Calhoun.....Danville
Ephraim Banning.....Chicago

Officers of the Board.

J. C. Corbus, M.D., *President*.....Mendota
Frederick Howard Wines, *Secretary*, Springfield

INDIANA.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

Room 52, State House, Indianapolis.

[Established by Chapter 37, Acts of 1889, passed Feb. 28, 1889.]

Thomas E. Ellison.....Ft. Wayne
Mary A. Spink.....Indianapolis
Margaret F. Peelle.....Indianapolis
Demarchus C. Brown.....Irvington
John R. Elder.....Indianapolis
Timothy Nicholson.....Richmond

Officers of the Board.

Governor James A. Mount, *ex-officio President*.....Indianapolis
Amos W. Butler, *Secretary*.....Indianapolis

IOWA.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

State Capitol, Des Moines.

[Established by Chapter 118, Laws of the 27th General Assembly, passed March 29, 1898.]

William Larrabee.....Clermont
L. G. Kinne.....Des Moines
John Cownie.....South Amana

Officers of the Board.

William Larrabee, *Chairman*.....Clermont
L. A. Wilkinson, *Secretary*.....Des Moines

KANSAS.

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES OF THE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS OF THE STATE OF KANSAS.

Topeka.

[Established by Chapter 9 of the Laws of 1868.]

H. G. Jumper.....Melvern
S. C. Wheeler.....Concordia
P. H. Dolan.....Salina
Frank Shane.....Oskaloosa
W. D. Street.....Oberlin

Officers of the Board.

H. G. Jumper, *President*.....Melvern
S. C. Wheeler, *Secretary*.....Concordia
P. H. Dolan, *Treasurer*.....Salina

MARYLAND.

THE LUNACY COMMISSION.

819 N. Charles Street, Baltimore, Maryland.

[Established by Chapter 487 of the Laws of 1886.]

John Morris, M.D.....Baltimore
Thomas S. Latimer, M.D.....Baltimore
I. E. Atkinson, M.D.....Baltimore
C. Birnie, M.D.....Taneytown
The Attorney-general, *ex officio*.

Officers of the Commission.

John Morris, M.D., *President*.....Baltimore
George J. Preston, M.D., *Secretary*..Baltimore

MASSACHUSETTS.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITY.

State House, Boston.

[Established by Chapter 79 of the Laws of 1879, passed April 30, 1879. Amended by Chapter 101 of Acts of 1886 and Chapter 433, § 24 of Acts of 1898.]

Leontine Lincoln.....Fall River
Henrietta G. Codman.....Brookline
Charles F. Donnelly.....Boston
Edward Hitchcock, M.D.....Amherst
Anne B. Richardson.....Lowell
Laban Pratt.....Boston
Henry S. Nourse.....Lancaster
Jabez Fox.....Cambridge
James M. Pullman, D.D.....Lynn

Officers of the Board.

Stephen C. Wrightington, *Superintendent of State Adult Poor*.....Boston
William P. Derby, M.D., *Superintendent of State Minor Wards*.....Boston
John D. Wells, *Clerk and Auditor of the Board*....Boston

STATE BOARD OF CHARITY.

Room 36, State House, Boston.

[Established by Chapter 433 of the Laws of 1898, passed October 1, 1898.]

George F. Jelly.....Boston
Herbert B. Howard.....Boston
Charles R. Codman.....Barnstable
Edward S. Bradford.....Springfield
Francis B. Gardner.....Brockton

Officers of the Board.

George F. Jelly, *Chairman*..... Boston
Francis B. Gardner, *Secretary*.....Brockton

MICHIGAN.

BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

Capitol, Lansing.

[Established by Act 192, of the Laws of 1871, passed April 17, 1871.]

The Governor, *ex officio*.....Detroit
Rt. Rev. Geo. D. Gillespie.....Grand Rapids
Edward W. Jenks, M.D.....Detroit
Thomas A. Hilton.....Coldwater
Charles W. Light.....Saginaw

Officers of the Board.

Rt. Rev. Geo. Gillespie, *Chairman*, Grand Rapids
L. C. Storrs, *Secretary*.....Lansing

MINNESOTA.

BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

State Capitol, St. Paul.

[Established by Chapter 127, General Laws, passed March 2, 1883.]

C. Amundson.....St. Peter
W. W. Folwell.....Minneapolis
Condé Hamlin.....St. Paul
C. P. Maginnis.....Duluth
J. H. Rich.....Red Wing
J. B. Wakefield.....Blue Earth City

Officers of the Board.

Gov. David M. Clough, *ex-officio President*.....St. Paul
C. Amundson, *Vice-President*.....St. Peter
James F. Jackson, *Secretary*.....St. Paul

MISSOURI.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Jefferson City.

[Established by Senate Bill 320 of the Laws of 1897, passed March 19, 1897.]

Gov. Lon. V. Stephens.....Jefferson City
Miss Mary E. Perry.....St. Louis
Mrs. E. B. Ingalls.....St. Louis
H. E. Robinson.....Maryville
R. M. Abercrombie.....St. Joseph
T. P. Haley.....Kansas City
R. E. Young.....Jefferson City

Officers of the Board.

Gov. Lon. V. Stephens, *President*, Jefferson City
Miss Mary E. Perry, *Vice-President*..St. Louis
A. E. Rogers, *Secretary*.....Nevada

NEBRASKA

BOARD OF PUBLIC LANDS AND BUILDINGS.

Capitol, Lincoln.

[Established by Chapter 83 of the Laws of 1877, passed February 13, 1877. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1875.]

Jacob B. Wolfe.....Lincoln
C. J. Smythe.....Lincoln
J. B. Meserve.....Lincoln
W. F. Porter.....Lincoln

Officers of the Board.

J. V. Wolfe, *President*.....Lincoln
W. F. Porter, *Secretary*.....Lincoln

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

State House, Concord.

[Established by Chapter 116 of the Laws of 1895, passed July 1, 1895.]

Dr. Irving A. Watson.....Concord
John Kivel.....Dover
Julia R. Carpenter.....Concord
Oliver J. M. Gilman.....Alton
Melusina H. Varick.....Manchester
J. M. Whipple.....Claremont

Officers of the Board.

John Kivel, *Chairman*.....Dover
Oliver J. M. Gilman, *Secretary*.....Alton

NEW JERSEY.

COMMISSION ON DEFECTIVE, DELINQUENT, AND DEPENDENT CHILDREN, AND THEIR CARE.

Office, 310 N. Broad Street, Elizabeth.

[Established by Joint Resolution of the Legislature of 1897.]

Hugh F. Fox, *Chairman*.....Bayonne
Major Paul Quirk.....West Hoboken
Mrs. E. E. Williamson, *Secretary*....Elizabeth

NEW YORK.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 951 of the Laws of 1867, approved May 23, 1867. Re-established by Chapter 546 of the Laws of 1896, approved May 12, 1896. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

William R. Stewart.....New York
Annie G. de Peyster.....New York
John Vinton Dahlgren.....New York
Stephen Smith, M.D.....New York
Edward H. Litchfield.....Brooklyn
Tunis G. Bergen.....Brooklyn
Selden E. Marvin.....Albany
Newton Aldrich.....Gouverneur
Robert McCarthy.....Syracuse
Peter Walrath.....Chittenango
Enoch V. Stoddard, M.D.....Rochester
Harvey W. Putnam.....Buffalo

Officers of the Board.

William R. Stewart, *President*.....New York
Enoch Vine Stoddard, M.D., *Vice-President*...Rochester
Robert W. Hebberd, *Secretary*.....Albany
Charles S. Hoyt, M.D., *Superintendent of State and Alien Poor*.....Albany
James O. Fanning, *Inspector of Charities*.....Albany

STATE COMMISSION IN LUNACY.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 283, Laws of 1889, approved May 14, 1889. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

Peter M. Wise, M.D.....Albany
Goodwin Brown.....Albany
William L. Parkhurst.....Albany

Officers of the Commission.

Peter M. Wise, M.D., *President*.....Albany
T. E. McGarr, *Secretary*.....Albany

STATE COMMISSION OF PRISONS.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 1026 of the Laws of 1895, approved June 15, 1895. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

Lispenard Stewart.....New York
Nelson Davenport.....Troy
Charles J. Boyd.....Middletown
William R. Remington.....Canton
John G. Dorrance.....Camden
William J. Mantanye.....Cortland
Sarah L. Davenport.....Bath
George B. Hayes.....Buffalo

Officers of the Commission.

Lispenard Stewart, *President*.....New York
Nelson Davenport, *Vice-President*.....Troy

NORTH CAROLINA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

Raleigh.

Charles Duffy, M.D.....Newbern
Lawrence J. Haughton.....Pittsboro
W. S. Reid.....Steel Creek
Wesley M. Jones.....Raleigh
C. B. Denson.....Raleigh

Officers of the Board.

Charles Duffy, M.D., *President*.....Newbern
C. B. Denson, *Secretary*.....Raleigh

OHIO.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

State House, Columbus.

[Established by Chapter 4, Revised Statutes, of 1867, passed April 17, 1867.]

Roeliff Brinkerhoff.....Mansfield
William Howard Neff.....Cincinnati
Charles Parrott.....Columbus
M. D. Follett.....Marietta
H. C. Ranney.....Cleveland
W. A. Hale.....Dayton

Officers of the Board.

Gov. Asa S. Bushnell, *President, ex-officio*.....Columbus
Gen. Roeliff Brinkerhoff, *Chairman*..Mansfield
Joseph P. Byers, *Secretary*.....Columbus

PENNSYLVANIA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

1224 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

[Established by Act of Legislature, passed April 24, 1869.]

Mahlon H. Dickinson.....Philadelphia
George W. Starr.....Erie
Henry M. Boies.....Scranton
George I. M'Leod.....Philadelphia
William B. Gill.....Philadelphia
George W. Ryon.....Shamokin
Charles Miller.....Franklin
Francis J. Torrance.....Allegheny
Isaac Johnson.....Media
Isaac J. Wistar.....Philadelphia
Cadwalader Biddle, *ex officio*.....Philadelphia

Officers of the Board.

Mahlon H. Dickinson, *President*..Philadelphia
Cadwalader Biddle, *General Agent and Secretary*.....Philadelphia
George I. M'Leod, M.D., *Chairman Committee on Lunacy*.....Philadelphia
Henry M. Wetherill, M.D., *Secretary Committee on Lunacy*....Philadelphia.

RHODE ISLAND.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

No. 104 North Main Street, Providence.

[Established by Chapter 291, General Laws, passed May Session, 1869.]

William Gregory.....Wickford
Walter A. Read.....Chepachet
George W. Cutter.....Newport
George Lewis Smith.....Nayatt
Ellery H. Wilson.....Providence
James B. Hanaford.....Apponaug
R. H. I. Goddard.....Providence
Philippe Boucher.....Woonsocket

Officers of the Board.

William Gregory, *Chairman*.....Wickford
Charles H. Peckham, *Secretary*.....Providence

SOUTH DAKOTA.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Secretary's Office, Bridgewater.

[Established by Chapter 5, Session Laws of 1890, passed March 6, 1890. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1889.]

W. J. Sibbison.....Dell Rapids
L. B. Laughlin.....Bridgewater
George W. Kingsbury.....Yankton
F. M. Steere.....Wessington Springs
J. P. Davis.....Winthrop

Officers of the Board.

W. J. Sibbison, *President*.....Dell Rapids
L. B. Laughlin, *Secretary*.....Bridgewater

TENNESSEE

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

Humane Society's Office, 413 Church Street, Nashville

[Established by Chapter 193 of the Laws of 1895, passed May 13, 1895.]

Lewis Tillman.....Knoxville
Hugh W. Tate, M.D.....Bolivar
W. H. Taylor, M.D.....New Market
James A. Orman, D.D.....Nashville
E. W. Cole.....Nashville
W. T. Harris, D.D.....Jackson
Gov. R. L. Taylor, Nashville, *ex officio*.

Officers of the Board.

James A. Orman, D.D., *President*....Nashville
Matt. Hoke, *Secretary*.....Nashville

WASHINGTON.

STATE BOARD OF AUDIT AND CONTROL.

Office of Board, Olympia. Office of Commissioner of Public Institutions, Tacoma.

[Established by Title xvi., Chapter 1, of Ballinger's Code of Washington, April 1, 1897.]

John R. Rogers, Governor.....Olympia
Ernest Lister.....Tacoma
Henry J. Snively.....North Yakima
W. M. Ridpath.....Spokane
John C. Stallcup.....Tacoma
Dr. J. Eugene Jordan.....Seattle

Officers of the Board.

John R. Rogers, Governor, *Chairman, ex-officio*.....Olympia
Ernest Lister, *Secretary, and Commissioner of Public Institutions*.....Tacoma

WISCONSIN.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

State Capitol, Madison.

[Established by Chapter 221 of the Laws of 1891.]

Richard Guenther.....Oshkosh
William P. Lyon.....Madison
Nathaniel B. Treat.....Monroe
E. R. Pethérick.....Milwaukee
George W. Bishop.....Rhinelander

Officers of the Board.

Richard Guenther, *President*.....Oshkosh
William P. Lyon, *Vice-President*.....Madison
M. J. Tappins, *Secretary*.....Madison

WYOMING.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

State Capitol, Cheyenne.

[Established by Chapter 37, Laws 1890-91, passed Jan. 8, 1891. Amended by Chapter 34, Laws of 1895, passed February 13, 1895. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1890.]

William A. Richards.....Cheyenne
Charles W. Burdick.....Cheyenne
William O. Owen.....Cheyenne
Henry G. Hay.....Cheyenne

Officers of the Board.

William A. Richards, *President*.....Cheyenne
Carroll H. Parmelee, *Secretary*.....Cheyenne

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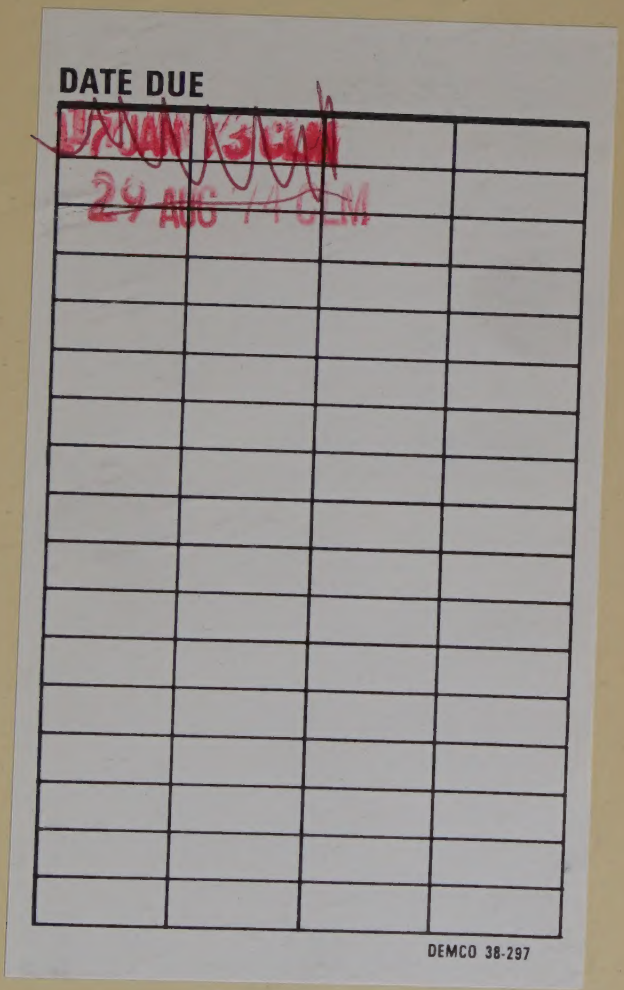

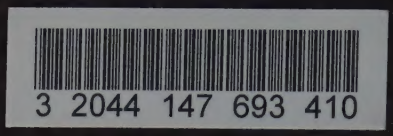
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